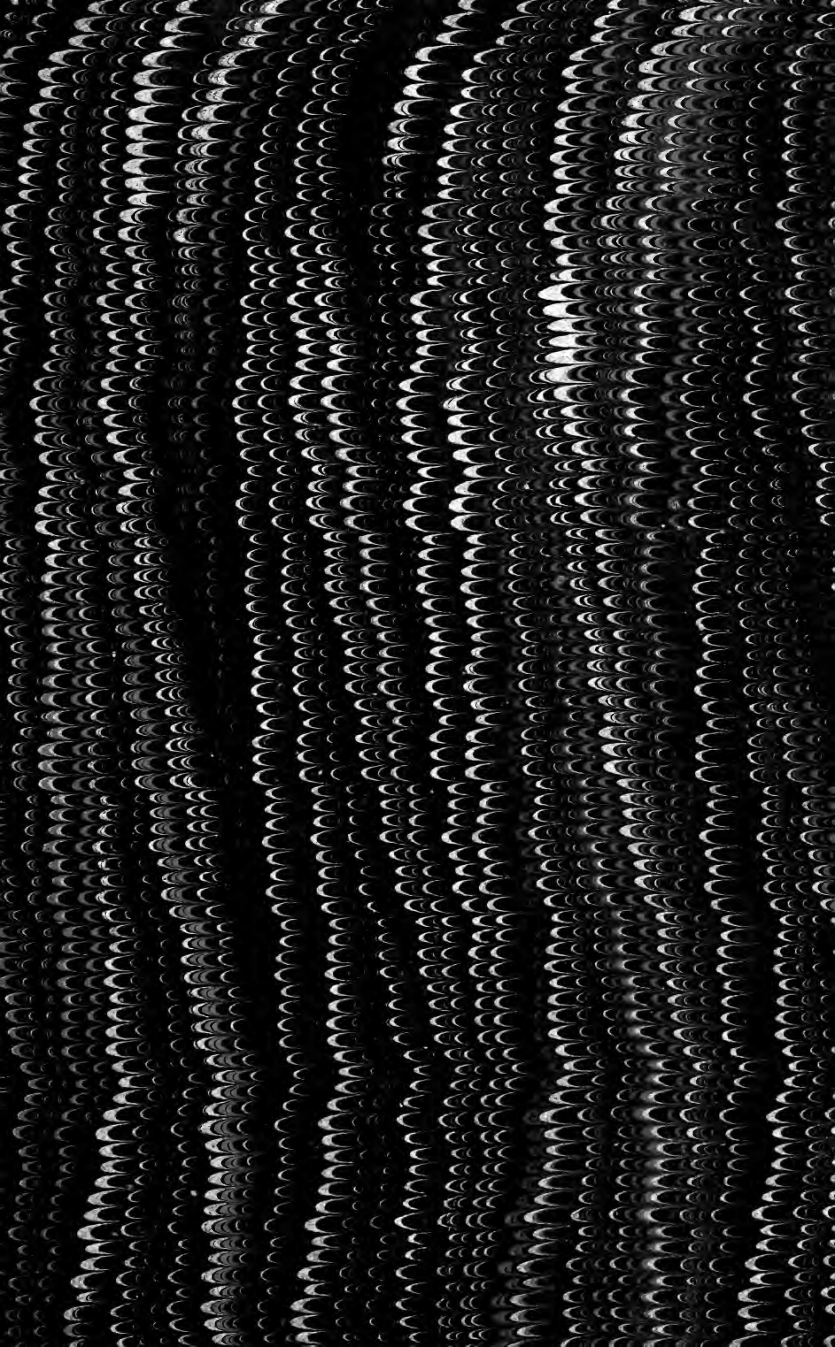




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CHURCHMAN'S COMMON-SENSE GRAMMAR.

A

RATIONAL SYSTEM

OF

English Grammar and Composition

FOR THE USE OF

SCHOOLS, ACADEMIES, AND PRIVATE STUDENTS,

BY

W. H. CHURCHMAN, A. M.,

SUP'T OF INDIANA INSTITUTE FOR THE EDUCATION OF THE BLIND.

*"For truth has such a face and such a mien,
As, to be lov'd, needs only to be seen."*—DRYDEN.

INDIANAPOLIS:

1874.

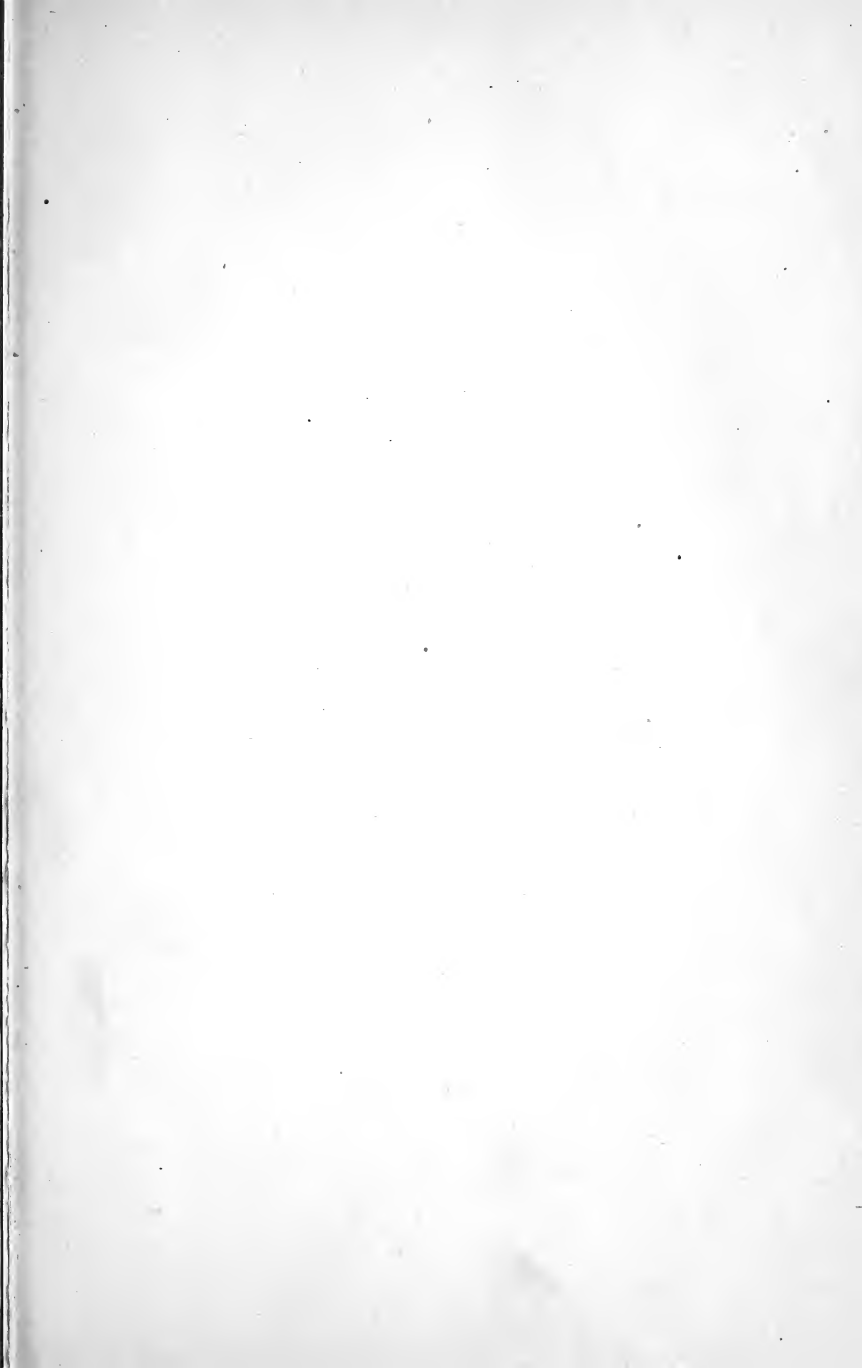
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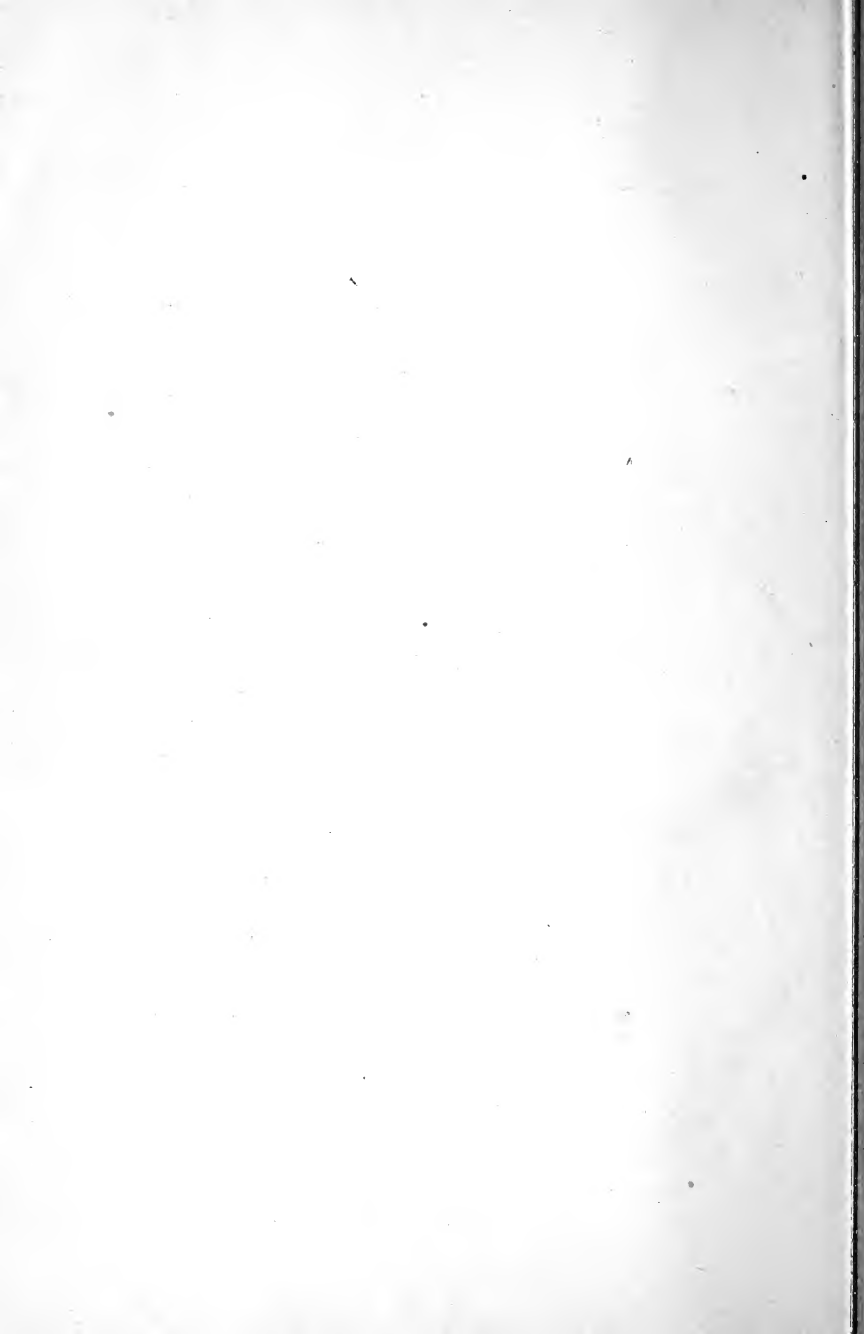
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ENGLISH GRAMMAR AND COMPOSITION

PART I.

FAMILIAR LESSONS IN LANGUAGE.

A FEW WORDS TO THE TEACHER.

Thought comes before speech, and the latter is a mere embodiment of the former in words; therefore, as is the thought, so will be its expression in language. If the one is complete and methodical, so will be the other; and the reverse of this proposition is equally true:

Again, speech comes before Grammar: the materials of composition—thought and language—must be possessed before they can be correctly shaped and arranged for use.

The vital error in the prevailing systems of Grammar and Composition consists in a reversal of this natural order. They would appear to proceed upon the assumption that Grammar is first, language second, and thought last: that the study of Grammatical rules furnishes language to the student, and language develops his thought. Hence, their unsatisfactory character, and the almost universal repugnance to the study of Grammar, which is felt by young persons.

In the preparation of the following lessons, the author has

striven to render the study of language more attractive and productive, not only by the introduction of the more rational system indicated above, but likewise, by substituting actual, logical principles for the Grammatical fictions with which ordinary text books upon language abound. The degree of success attendant upon his efforts must depend, however, in great measure, upon the manner in which it is seconded by the teacher; for, whatever may be the *mérit* of any system, it must fail in its design if incompletely carried out.

Let it be borne in mind, then, that the true aim of this course of lessons is, first, to develop the observing and thinking powers of the pupil; secondly, to increase his knowledge of words, and cultivate his conversational powers by encouraging him in their free and unrestrained use in the expression of his thought; and, lastly, to habituate him to Grammatical correctness in the use of language. Under this last head it is not sufficient to teach principles merely; but the pupil must be constantly watched, and required to correct his faulty expressions.

The exercises interspersed through the course are designed to be suggestive only, and the intelligent teacher will find ample scope for varying and extending them at pleasure. The topics for thought and conversation embraced in the first twelve sections are comprehensive in their character, and the more they are developed in detail, the greater will be the benefit derived by the pupil from their discussion. Should some of them prove too difficult for quite young pupils, such may be passed over for the time being and taken up in a review.

Finally, should the teacher find in the following pages some views which are at variance with popular notions upon the subject of English Grammar, it is hoped that they will not be condemned without a candid examination in the light of reason and common sense, as well as the recognized principles of logic.

§ 1. OBJECTS: MATERIAL AND IMMATERIAL.

1. In the study of language, anything about which we can think, talk or write, is considered as an object.

2. Objects are of two kinds, *material* and *immaterial*.

3. **Material** objects are such as are composed of matter or substance: as, *the outer or physical world and everything it contains*.

4. **Immaterial** objects are such as are not composed of matter, but are mere objects of thought: as, *the inner or spiritual world and everything it contains*.

5. Some objects, *as human beings*, are both material and immaterial, because they belong alike to the physical and spiritual worlds.

Remark. Some persons think that the lower animals, as well as human beings, belong to both worlds; but as there is no certainty of this, they will be considered in these lessons as material objects only.

Oral Exercise.

Note. When the pupils fail to give a satisfactory explanation of the meaning of a word from their own knowledge, let them be required to consult a dictionary; but this, not until they shall have made sufficient effort of themselves.

1. What is meant by the term, *matter? substance?*
2. What by the expression, *outer or physical world?*
3. What by the expression, *inner or spiritual world?*
4. To which of the two worlds does the earth belong? the sun? the moon? the stars?
5. To which does the Creator belong? Heaven? spirits? angels?
6. What part of a human being belongs to the physical world?
7. What part to the spiritual world?

8. Will you always remain in the material world?
9. What part of you will not?
10. When will you cease to be in the outer world?
11. How long will your souls or minds continue in the spiritual world?
12. What does the word, *mortal*, mean? *immortal*?
13. What part of you is mortal, and what part immortal?
14. Tell which of the following named objects are material, and which immaterial:

The atmosphere; water; flowers; trees; charity; truth; grass; conscience; rocks; honesty; crime; industry; apples; horses; life; memory; time; space; a mile; gas; a week; poetry; music; language.

§ 2. OBJECTS: ANIMATE AND INANIMATE.

1. Some material objects possess animal life, and some do not.

2. Those objects which possess animal life are called **animate** objects, or living beings; and those which do not possess animal life are called **inanimate** objects.

Oral Exercise.

1. What does the word, *animate*, mean? *inanimate*?
2. Tell which of the following named objects are animate, and which inanimate:

Men; women; children; flowers; insects; houses; tables; birds; chairs; trees; horses; fruits; grass; fishes; meat; vegetables; reptiles; shell-fish.

3. What does the word, *mankind*, mean?

4. What are animals?

Name some that you know or have heard of.

5. Are men, women and children animals?

Explain why, and what parts of them do not belong to the animal kingdom.

6. Are animals thought to be mortal or immortal?

7. What are reptiles?

Name some of which you know.

8. What are shell-fish?
Name some.
9. What are insects?
Name some.
10. Are dead animals animate or inanimate objects?
Why?
11. Have not trees, flowers, grass and the like, some kind of life also?
12. What kind of life is this called?
13. What general name is given to the several parts of such objects as are endowed with animal or vegetable life?
14. Name some of the principal organs of the animal structure, and tell the use of each one named.
15. Name some of the organs of trees and other plants, and tell their uses.
16. Why are animals and plants called organized objects?
17. What are material objects called, which do not possess either kind of life mentioned?
18. Name a number of inorganic, or unorganized bodies or objects with which you are familiar.
19. What do plants do, that unorganized objects do not?
20. What do animals do, that plants can not?
21. What does the word, *locomotion*, mean?

§ 3. ATTRIBUTES OF MATERIAL OBJECTS.

1. Every object possesses certain qualities or properties by which it is distinguished from other objects.
2. Any quality or property of an object is called an *attribute* of that object.
3. Many of the qualities of material objects are called **sensible** qualities, because they are perceived through the medium of the *senses*; and hence, *material* objects are called **sensible** objects, because they possess sensible qualities.
4. It is only by its *qualities* that the presence, or even the existence of any object is known to us.

Oral Exercise.

1. You were able in the previous lesson, to distinguish between material things or objects, and those which are immaterial—

How did you do this?

Who can give an explanation?

2. By what kind of qualities are material objects distinguished from immaterial or thought objects?

3. If a bell were held up before you, you would call it a material object—

Why?

But how would you know it to be composed of matter?

Would either of your senses inform you of the fact?

Which of them?

4. Now, if, instead of the bell's being held up before you in the light, it were handed to you in a dark room, would you then be able to pronounce it a material object?

How would you know it to be such?

5. Again, if, instead of its being shown you in either of the ways mentioned, the bell should be rung in an adjoining room, would you still be able to distinguish it as a material object?

By what means would you do so in that case?

6. Suppose now, that a piece of apple or some other familiar fruit should be placed in each of your mouths without your being permitted to examine it by sight or touch, could you name the object, and determine whether it was material or immaterial?

By what means?

7. Finally, if a rose or some other fragrant flower were to be brought near you in a darkened room, could you detect the presence of a material object?

How could you do it this time?

8. We have found, then, several means of distinguishing material from immaterial objects—

How many are there, and what are they called?

Give the name of each.

9. Can you think of any other way of doing this, than through the help of these five senses?

10. By what means do material objects manifest themselves to us through the senses?

11. Do we know anything of the existence of such objects excepting by their qualities?

12. Does every one you know, possess all of the five senses you have mentioned?

What persons do not?

13. Do all persons possess them, who are not deprived of one or more of them through accident or disease?

14. Besides recognizing the *existence* of material objects through the senses, you are likewise able to distinguish, one from another, the various objects around you: for instance, you call one thing a *chair*; another, a *table*; another, a *desk*; another, a *book*; another, a *slate*; and so on.

What enables you to do this?

15. Did all things possess the same qualities, and in like degrees, would you be able to tell one of these objects from another?

They must, then, possess some marks of difference.

But in what respects, mainly, do they differ from each other?

16. Name some objects that are round; oval; square; oblong; triangular; octagonal; straight; curved; crooked.

17. Name some that are large; small; long; wide; short; tall; low; thick; thin; sharp-edged; pointed.

18. Name some that are black; white; red; green; blue; yellow; pink; purple; gray; striped; spotted; variegated.

19. Name some that are heavy; light; rare; dense; porous; hot; cold; rough; smooth; soft; hard; elastic; non-elastic; rigid; flexible.

20. By which of the senses do you distinguish the forms of objects? the size or dimensions? the weight? colors? sounds? flavors? odors? roughness and smoothness? hardness and softness? heat and cold?

21. By which of the senses do you recognize the presence of air or atmosphere? illuminating gas? smoke? vapor? electricity?

§ 4. ATTRIBUTES OF MATERIAL OBJECTS.

1 Besides the sensible qualities treated of in the preceding section, material objects possess other attributes, which, though they could not be known to us without the help of our senses, can not properly be called sensible attributes. They are not inherent qualities of matter, but rather, the resultants of such qualities.

2. Among the attributes just alluded to, are those of existence, action and the different modes of being; that is, all objects exist; some perform actions; and all are said to do things which, strictly speaking, are not actions, but modes or states of being: as, *sitting, standing, sleeping*, and the like.

Oral Exercise.

1. In a previous lesson, a distinction was made between animate and inanimate objects, and you found no difficulty in telling one kind from the other—

What enabled you to do this?

2. If you were shown a living man or horse, you would call him an animate object—

But why would you do so?

It can not be on account of his form, size, color, weight and other sensible qualities; for he might possess all of these and yet be dead, and therefore an inanimate object.

For what reason, then, do you call him an animate object?

You will naturally say: because he possesses animal life.

But what makes you know that he possesses animal life?

Do you observe in him any attributes besides the sensible qualities referred to?

What are they?

Does he exist?

Can he perform any actions?

What can he do that may be called action?

What can he do that can not be called action, but merely existence or being in certain states or modes?

If he stands, lies, sleeps, tires, grows, dies, decays or the like, are these things actions or are they modes of being?

3. Are these attributes of existence, action and modes of being, inherent qualities of matter, or are they resultants of such qualities in combination with certain forces of nature?

4. You can perceive by your senses, that objects exist, act etc.; but can you see, feel or hear the *attributes* of existence and action, as you can see, feel, hear, taste and smell the sensible qualities of objects referred to in the preceding section?

5. But *inanimate* objects as well as animate, possess the attributes of existence, action and modes of being: thus, the sun *shines*; the earth *revolves*; trees *grow* and *die*; flowers *bloom* and *fade*; rain *falls*, etc.

6. Name some other inanimate objects, and tell what they do.

7. Tell some of the things that can be done by human beings; by horses; by birds; by fishes; by winged and other insects; by snakes and other reptiles.

§ 5. SENSATION AND PERCEPTION.

You have learned,—

(a.) That all material objects possess certain qualities or properties, called attributes.

(b.) That these attributes are perceived, directly or indirectly, through the medium of the five senses.

(c.) That it is only by their attributes, that we are able to know of the existence of such objects, and distinguish them one from another.

(d.) That these attributes are known, in general terms, as those of quality, existence or being, action, and mode or state of being.

Oral Exercise.

1. Name the five senses.
2. What are the organs of the sense of sight?

3. What are the principal organs of the sense of touch?
Which is the dexter hand?

What is the meaning of the word dexterous? ambidextrous?

4. What are the organs of the sense of hearing?

5. What is the principal organ of the sense of taste?

6. What is the organ of the sense of smell?

7. Are these organs parts of the body, or of the mind?

8. What is called the organ of the mind?

Is the brain a part of the body?

Where is it located?

9. What is meant by the function of an organ?

10. What is a sensible quality? a sensible object?

11. What is a visible quality? a visible object?

12. What is a tangible quality? a tangible object?

13. What is a sonorous quality? a sonorous object?

What does the word, *euphonious*, mean? *consonant*? *dissonant*?
concordant? *discordant*?

14. What is a sapid quality? a sapid object?

15. What is an odorous quality? an odorous object? an
inodorous object?

16. Which is the visual sense?

What does the word, *ocular*, mean?

17. Which is the tactual sense?

18. Which is the auditory sense?

What does the word, *audible*, mean?

19. Which is the gustatory sense?

What does the word, *disgustful*, mean? *nauseous*?

20. Which is the olfactory sense?

21. We say that external or material objects are perceived by us through the medium of our senses—

But what part of us is it, that sees, feels, hears, tastes and smells these objects, and thereby perceives what they are, and what they do?

Is it the body as a whole, or even those parts of the body which we call the organs of sense?

What is it, then, that calls this a table, that a book, etc?

Remark. The body is often beautifully compared to a tenement or house, in which the soul resides during its earth-

life, and the organs of sense, to so many windows through which it looks out upon the external world. When disease or accident closes one or more of these windows, as is often the case, the soul is left in partial darkness until removed from its earthly home to a brighter one beyond the grave.

22. What is sensation?

Ans. **Sensation** is an impression made upon the mind by external objects, through the medium of the organs of sense.

23. What is perception?

Ans. **Perception** is the act of gaining knowledge of external or material objects through sensation; also, the faculty of the mind which perceives or apprehends whatever is presented to it, through sensation or otherwise.

§ 6. BODILY SENSATION.

1. We experience, or are conscious of, a class of bodily sensations, such as *heat, cold, pain* and the like, which are of a different character from those hitherto considered.

2. These bodily sensations are felt or perceived by the mind, not through the organs or nerves of touch, but through a kind of general sense, which is sometimes denominated the *muscular* sense.

3. Though the sensations in question may be caused by objects external to the mind, yet they do not arise from corresponding sensible qualities in these objects, as in the case of the other classes of sensations referred to in previous sections.

Oral Exercise.

1. Name as many of the bodily sensations as you can think of.

2. What are the feelings of warmth, chillness, pain, pleasure, nausea, hunger, thirst, sleepiness, weariness, lassitude, strength, weakness, languor and the like?

3. Do these sensations not arise from certain states of your bodies?

4. Can you place your hands upon your bodies, and feel them through the nerves of touch, as you can feel the tangible qualities of material objects?

5. If your friend should have the headache or feel sleepy, could you place your hand upon his head, and discover it by touch?

6. If not by the sense of touch, could you discover these states or qualities of the human body by either of the other four senses?

§ 7. ATTRIBUTES OF IMMATERIAL OBJECTS.

1. Immaterial or thought, objects, as well as material objects, have their attributes of quality, being, action and state of being.

2. But these attributes, unlike those of material objects, are not perceived through the medium of the senses.

3. Yet they are perceived by the mind, and through them the objects themselves are presented to it, as in the case of material objects.

4. In order, however, that this presentation may take place, another mental faculty is brought into requisition, which is called *conception*; that is, when certain attributes are perceived or apprehended by the mind, it at once forms a conception of the object to which they belong. Thus: Our conceptions of Deity are derived from such of His attributes as are apprehended by us.

Oral Exercise.

1. What are immaterial objects?
2. Is God a material, or an immaterial object?
3. Name such of His known qualities as you can think of.

4. What is the meaning of the word, *infinite? eternal? omnipresent? ubiquitous? omniscient? omnipotent?*

5. Does God exist?

6. What did and does He do?

7. Is the soul or mind a material, or an immaterial object?

8. Name some of its qualities.

9. What do we mean by the expression, a *strong* mind? a *weak* mind? a *large* or *great* mind? a *small* or *narrow* mind? a *comprehensive* mind? a *capacious* mind? an *acute* or *sharp* mind? an *obtuse* or *dull* mind? an *inquisitive* mind? a *philosophical* mind? a *mathematical* mind? a *reflective* mind? a *retentive* mind? a *contemplative* mind? a *cultivated* mind? an *expanded* mind? a *contracted* mind? a *dwarfed* mind?

Remark 1. You will have observed, that many of the terms which are used to express the qualities of *material* objects, are also used to express those of *immaterial* objects. Their meaning, in the latter case is said to be borrowed; and language thus used, is called *figurative* language. Language that is not figurative, is said to be *literal*.

10. What can the mind do?

11. What is that part of the mind called, which *perceives, remembers, conceives, imagines, judges and reasons?*

12. What is the part called, which feels *happy or unhappy, loves, desires etc?*

13. Is the heart really an organ of the mind?

14. When we say, then, that the *heart* feels, loves etc., do we speak literally, or figuratively?

15. What is that part of the mind called, which resolves or determines that we will or will not do this or that thing?

16. What does the word, *volition*, mean?

Remark 2. In mental philosophy, that part of the mind which we ordinarily called the heart, is known as the *sensibilities* or *affections*.

17. What do we mean by the expression, a *heavy* heart a *light* heart? a *gay* heart? a *sad* heart? a *large* heart? a *small* heart? a *black* heart? a *corrupt* heart? a *strong* will? a *vacillating* will?

18. Which of the foregoing expressions are *literal*, and which *figurative?*

§ 8. EMOTIONS, DESIRES AND TASTES.

1. As the body has its peculiar sensations, described in a previous section (§ 6), so the mind has its feelings of pleasure and pain, called *emotions*; its hunger and thirst, called *desires*, *affections* or *passions*.

2. These emotions and desires are attributes of the heart, or that part of the mind called the sensibilities or affections.

3. The mind also possesses a kind of general sense, known as the *esthetic* sense, or sense of taste. It is this faculty, which gives us our relish for the beautiful in nature and art.

Oral Exercise.

1. Name as many of your pleasant emotions as you can think of.

2. Name as many of your unpleasant or painful emotions as you can think of.

3. Tell which of the following named emotions are pleasant, and which unpleasant:

Joy, grief, sadness, gratitude, melancholy, sorrow, pity, remorse, regret, sympathy.

4. What kind of emotion, pleasant or unpleasant, do you feel when you perceive, or think of a *beautiful* object? a *disagreeable* object?

5. What kind, when you witness or hear of a *humane* act? a *cruel* or *unkind* act? *ungrateful* conduct? *selfish* pride in your companions? *disrespect* shown to your parents, teachers or other friends?

6. What kind, when you hear of the *death* of a friend? some *happy circumstance* connected with a friend?

7. What is the meaning of the word, *benevolent*? *malevolent*?

8. Name as many of the *benevolent* passions as you can think of.

9. Name as many of the *malevolent* passions as you can think of.

10. Say to which of these classes each of the following passions belongs :

Love, hatred, friendship, malice, revenge, patriotism, benevolence, avarice, charity, anger, hope, envy.

11. Do all persons' **tastes** agree?

12. Do you each think the same things handsome, or otherwise?

13. By what circumstances do you think the tastes of different persons are governed?

14. Say which of the following named qualities of mind, are attributes of the *intellect* or head; which, attributes of the *sensibilities* or heart; and which, attributes of the *will* :

Talent, genius, bravery, cowardice, industry, patience, prudence, thoughtfulness, perseverance, indolence, ignorance, truthfulness, honesty, morality, peevishness, ingratitude, wisdom, sinfulness, deceitfulness, hypocrisy, selfishness, cautiousness, intelligence, piety, fidelity, pride, affection, amiability, moroseness, lunacy, conscienciousness, covetousness, enviousness, quarrelsomeness, humility, stubbornness, obstinacy, ingenuity, frankness, cunning, duplicity, rashness, circumspection, magnanimity, parsimoniousness, obduracy, kindness, cruelty, malevolence, obsequousness, ennui.

15. What is meant by the expression, a *crooked* disposition? an *amiable* disposition? a *pliant* will? an *astute* mind? a *desponding* disposition? an *indomitable* will? a *reckless* disposition? an *artless* disposition? a *confiding* disposition? a *distrustful* disposition? a *misanthropic* disposition? a *philanthropic* disposition? a *coarse* person? a *refined* mind? a *cultivated* taste? a *vitiated* taste? a *crude* intellect? a *subtle* mind? an *active* mind? a *plodding* mind? a *wandering* mind? an *absent* mind? a *concentrative* mind? a *well formed* mind?

§ 9. CONSCIENCE.

1. The sensibilities are usually classified under two heads, *natural* and *moral*.

2. The **natural** sensibilities are such of our emotions and desires or affections as have no reference to the *moral* qualities of our thoughts, feelings, intentions and actions.

3. The **moral** sensibilities are such of our emotions and affections as have reference to what is *morally* right or wrong in our thoughts, feelings, intentions and actions.

4. **Conscience** is another name for the moral sensibilities.

5. The moral **emotions** are feelings of pleasure or displeasure, happiness or unhappiness, which arise in view of our judgment as to what is morally right or wrong in our motives and actions, as well as in those of other persons.

6. The moral **affections** are our feelings of obligation to do what is right and avoid what is wrong; and our love for God as our Heavenly Father, and our fellow creatures as his children.

7. God speaks to us through our consciences, approving what is right in us, and condemning what is wrong.

Oral Exercise.

1. Do you feel pleased, or *displeased* when you witness a wrong action in another?

Do you always feel displeased?

When you do not, what do you think is the reason?

2. Do you feel happy, or *unhappy* when you have a wrong feeling or do a wrong act, yourselves?

3. Do you always feel more happy when you do right, than when you do wrong?

4. When you do not feel unhappy in doing wrong, what do you think is the reason?

5. Do you think you can do what you know or believe to be wrong, and not be unhappy about it, sooner or later?

6. What is meant by the expression, an *active* conscience? a *tender* conscience? a *hardened* conscience? a *seared* conscience? a *cultivated* conscience? a *blunted* conscience?

7. What effect upon the conscience has constant obedience to its dictates?

8. What effect upon the conscience has disobedience to its dictates?

9. What influence has the judgment upon the action of conscience?

10. Does conscience act in conformity with the judgment, or independently of it?

11. Why does conscience impel one person to pursue a certain course, and another, to pursue an opposite course?

12. Is conscience, then, a *judging* faculty, or is it an *executive* or governing power, impelling us to do that which our judgment pronounces to be right?

13. What is the meaning of the word, *remorse*? *contrition*?

§ 10. CONCEPTION AND IMAGINATION.

1. In the fourth paragraph of section seven (§ 7), reference was made to the faculty of **conception**, as the power by which thought objects are formed in the mind through an apprehension of their attributes.

2. But the conceptive faculty does more than this:—

(a.) It originates thought objects, as in the case of new inventions, designs etc.

(b.) It recalls or *represents* to the mind, in their absence, material objects once *presented* to it through sensation.

3. That which is conceived of, or formed in the mind, is termed a *conception* or a *concept*; or, it is sometimes called an *idea*.

4. When several simple conceptions or ideas previously existing in the mind, are combined into

one image or whole, as when a painter conceives of a landscape or a group of figures, the process is called **imagination**.

Remark. The words, *imagination* and *fancy*, are frequently used as synonyms of conception; but the term, *fancy*, more properly conveys the notion of something unreal or whimsical in the conception to which it is applied.

Oral Exercise.

1. When you hear of or read about some person or thing, is an image of that person or thing presented to your minds?
By what faculty is it thus presented?

2. If you were to undertake to make something new, whether a plaything, a drawing upon your slate, a dress, or anything else, would you have in your mind an idea or picture of the object before commencing its construction?

If not, what would guide you in the work?

3. What mental faculty would give you this picture?

4. Let each one think of the house in which he lives—

Do you seem to see it standing before you?

Can you tell its color, and describe its form?

Then, try to do so.

Can you count its windows? its doors? its chimneys?

Can you, in mind, enter it and count its rooms, naming the articles of furniture in each?

If in the country, can you see the trees, the flowers, the fences surrounding it, and the outbuildings connected with it?

Do you really perceive all these things through your visual sense, as you sit here in your school room?

By what power, then, are they thus imaged in your minds?

By what faculty are these several concepts combined into one picture of the house and its surroundings?

5. Now, instead of fixing the mind upon some house with which you are familiar, suppose some one should describe to you, with its surroundings, a building which you had never seen.

Would you in that case, have a mental picture of the scene

described, just as you did when you thought of your own home?

6. But, if from the description, some important feature of the house, as, the windows or chimneys, were to be inadvertently omitted, would you see it as described, or would the mind naturally complete the picture by supplying the deficiency?

How would it be, if you were told that the house had been constructed, purposely or accidentally, without windows, or without chimneys?

Would you then supply the missing features in your mental picture?

7. Again, suppose yourselves to be destitute of vision, and obliged to depend upon the tactual sense for gaining a knowledge of such parts of a building as might be accessible to you, and upon description for the inaccessible parts—

Would you, in such case, have in your minds a complete picture of the building?

Through the agency of what faculties would it be formed?

8. If you were permitted to handle some object in the dark, say a piece of furniture, would you afterwards be able to recognize it in the light, through the visual sense?

If it were first shown you in the light, would you afterwards recognize it in the dark, through the tactual sense?

9. Would the faculty of conception be called into use in these cases?

Explain how.

10. If you were to pass your hand over a rough, or a smooth surface, could you afterwards recall the sensation of roughness, or of smoothness?

By what power?

11. Can you recall to mind, so that you seem to hear them again, strains of music, and other sounds which you have once heard?

By what power do you do this?

12. What do you mean, when you say that certain tunes,

or certain words that you have heard, are constantly running in your minds?

13. It is well known, that educated musicians receive almost as much pleasure from reading the notes of a musical composition, as from hearing it performed—

How do you explain this?

14. In what way did the eminent composer, Bethooven, derive pleasure from playing upon an almost stringless piano, after he had lost his hearing?

15. Can you recall sensations of taste and smell, as you do those of sight, touch and hearing?

By what power?

16. Why do you sometimes make a wry face, when you think of something very sour or very bitter, which you have tasted?

17. Why are you sometimes made sick by the thought of something nauseous, which you have previously tasted or smelled?

18. What is conception?

Answer. **Conception** is the act of recalling sensations and perceptions, or of forming thought objects in the mind; also, the power by which this mental act is performed.

19. What is imagination?

Answer. **Imagination** is the act of combining separate conceptions into one image or whole; also, the power by which this mental act is performed.

Remark. 1. The mind is sometimes compared to a gallery whose walls are covered with pictures of the objects and scenes which have been witnessed by us; and it is through the powers of conception and imagination, that these pictures are brought, at will, in review before us.

Remark. 2. The mental faculties just mentioned, play an important part in all kinds of composition; and hence the necessity of understanding and cultivating them in connection with the study of Grammar.

Remark. 3. Descriptive composition is appropriately termed, the *Art of Word Painting*—

20. Read the following stanza, and explain the picture which it suggests to your minds:

"The curfew tolls the knell of parting day,
The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea,
The plowman homeward plods his weary way,
And leaves the world to darkness and to me."

Gray's Elegy.

What is a *curfew*?

Do you seem to see the rustic church, and hear the solemn tones issuing from its belfry?

Do you see and hear the lowing cattle, as they wind their way homeward through the meadow?

Do you see the tired plowman and his horses, wending their way homeward?

Do you see the humble cottage where his evening meal is spread?

21. Read also, from "Snow Bound," by Whittier, the passage commencing, "Shut in from all the world without," and ending, "With nuts from brown October's wood;" and explain the picture suggested.

§ 11. MEMORY AND ASSOCIATION.

1. **Memory** is the faculty by which we retain and recall our knowledge of past thoughts or events.

2. One of the principal aids to memory is what is known as the **association** of ideas; that is, the peculiar connection between our thoughts or ideas, by which one has power to suggest another.

3. The **association** of ideas is governed by various circumstances, among which are resemblance, contrast, nearness of time and space, the relation of cause and effect, and subjective or personal experience.

4. Whatever is found to govern the association of ideas, as a general rule, is called a *law of association*.

Oral Exercise.

1. In what way may a stranger call up in one's mind, the image of an absent friend?

Is personal resemblance the only thing that can do this?

Name as many other ways as you can think of?

2. Does deformity ever make you think of beauty; darkness, of light; cruelty, of kindness; age, of youth; sickness, of health; unhappiness, of happiness; &c?

By what law of association is this?

3. How are you reminded of one event, by thinking of another which happened about the same time?

4. How are you reminded of your own home by seeing that of a neighbor?

5. If you have been made sick by eating of a certain kind of fruit, how are you reminded of your sickness by seeing that kind of fruit afterwards?

6. What law of association is it, that makes a burnt child dread the fire?

7. Why do you like to look upon the picture of a friend?

8. Why do you value a present from a friend, more than you would the same article, if given you by a stranger?

9. Why do you desire to possess things, however trifling in value, which once belonged to friends who have passed from this life?

10. Why do we love to visit the homes of our childhood, though they may have passed into the hands of strangers?

11. Why is it, that the heart of a foreigner throbs with emotion, when he hears the songs of his native land?

12. When does the song, "Home, Sweet Home," sound most sweetly to you?

Explain the reason.

§ 12. OBJECTS: CONCRETE AND ABSTRACT.

1. All material objects, and such immaterial ones as possess attributes are called **concrete** objects.

2. When mere attributes are conceived of as objects of thought, apart from the objects to which they belong, they are called **abstract** objects: as, *wisdom, intelligence, love, mercy, life, heat, cold*, etc.

Oral Exercise.

1. Name a number of concrete objects, material and immaterial.

2. Name a number of abstract objects.

3. Are all abstract objects immaterial?

Can you name any that are not such?

Remark. The qualities of material objects can have no substantial existence, apart from the objects themselves.

§ 13. OBJECTS AND THEIR ATTRIBUTES.

General Summary.

1. Anything about which we can think, talk or write is called an object.

2. **Material** objects are such as are composed of matter or substance.

3. **Immaterial** objects are such as are composed of spirit, or such as are mere objects of thought.

4. **Animate** objects are such as are endowed with animal life.

5. **Inanimate** objects are such as are not endowed with animal life.

6. All real objects, material and immaterial, possess certain properties, called *attributes*.

7. **Concrete** objects are real objects, considered in connection with their attributes.

8. **Abstract** objects are mere attributes, conceived of as objects of thought, apart from the concrete objects to which they belong.

9. An **attribute** is any property possessed by, or ascribed to an object.

10. All attributes of objects are considered under the general heads of *quality*, *action*, *being* and *mode of being*.

11. A **primary** or essential quality of an object is one, without which the object can not exist.

12. A **secondary** quality of an object is one which is not necessary to the existence of the object.

13. The most prominent of the essential qualities of all *material* objects are *extension*, or *length*, *breadth* and *thickness*; *figure* or *form*; *size* or *quantity*; *density* or *solidity*; *place* or *situation*; and *mobility*, or *aptitude to motion*.

14. Some of the secondary qualities of *material* objects are *color*, *sound*, *hardness* and *softness*, *roughness* and *smoothness*, *heat* and *cold*, *taste*, *odor*, *brittleness*, *elasticity*, etc.

15. The primary qualities of *immaterial* objects are too little known to admit of their being definitely enumerated and classified.

16. The secondary qualities of *immaterial* objects are, in a figurative sense, somewhat similar to those of material objects, as explained in previous sections.

17. Besides the *inherent* qualities of objects, some of them bear certain relations to each other, which are usually classified under the general head of qualities. These may properly be termed *attributes of relation*.

18. Some of the attributes of relation are,

(a.) **Identity**: as, that *man* is *John*.

(b.) **Class** : as, *man* is an *animal* ; that *man* is an *Indian*.

(c.) **Ownership or possession** ; as, *John's* book ; *my* slate.

(d.) **Kinship** : as, *parent* and *child* ; *brother* and *sister*.

(e.) **Equality** : as, *equal* parts ; *unequal* sums.

(f.) **Resemblance** ; as, *similar* houses ; *dissimilar* people.

(g.) **Position or office** ; as, the *top* of a table ; the *cover* of a book ; the *teacher* of a school.

(h.) **Succession** : as, *first*, *second*, *last* ; *former* ; *latter*.

Oral Exercise.

1. What is an object ?
2. What are material objects ?
Name some.
3. What are immaterial objects ?
Name some.
4. What are animate objects ?
Name some.
5. What are inanimate objects ?
Name some.
6. What do all real objects possess ?
7. What are concrete objects ?
Name some.
8. What are abstract objects ?
Name some.
9. What is an attribute ?
10. Under what general heads are all attributes ^{or} considered ?

(a.) Name some attributes of *quality*, in connection with appropriate objects, material and immaterial : as, *large* apples, an *active* mind.

(b.) Name some attributes of *action*, in connection with appropriate objects: as, birds *fly*; winds *blow*.

(c.) Name some attributes of *being*, in connection with appropriate objects: as, God *is*; the world *exists*.

(d.) Name some attributes of *mode of being*, in connection with appropriate objects: as, men *sleep*; trees *stand*.

11. What is a primary quality?

12. What is a secondary quality?

13. What are the most prominent of the essential qualities of material objects?

14. What are some of the secondary qualities of material objects?

15. What is said of the primary qualities of immaterial objects?

16. What is said of the secondary qualities of immaterial objects?

17. Besides the inherent qualities of objects, what other attributes do some of them possess, which are usually classed under the general head of qualities?

18. What are some of the attributes of relation?

§ 14. LANGUAGE.

1. When we think, we think of some object as the subject of one or more of the attributes which may be ascribed to it.

2. In communicating our thoughts to one another, we employ a system of vocal or other signs, which we call *language*.

3. **Language**, in its extended sense, is any means which may be employed to express thought, feeling and volition, whether addressed to the hearing through vocal or other sounds, or to either of the other senses, through appropriate symbols.

Oral Exercise.

1. Can you think of any object, apart from its attributes? Why not? (§ 3, ¶ 4).
2. What is spoken language?
To which of the senses is it addressed?
3. What are the elements of spoken language?
4. How many articulate sounds are there in the English Language, as usually considered?
 - (a.) Into what general classes are they divided?
 - (b.) Which are the vowels, and which, the consonants?
5. What is written language?
To which of the senses is it addressed?
6. What are the elements of written language?
7. How many letters are there in the English Language?
 - (a.) What do they represent?
 - (b.) Into what two classes are they divided?
 - (c.) What are they called, collectively?
8. Is all written language addressed to the sight?
9. What kind of letters are used by the blind?
To which sense are they addressed?
10. What kind of letters are used by deaf mutes, in reading and writing?
11. What substitute have deaf-mutes for spoken language?
12. How do they represent articulate sounds?
13. How may blind persons and deaf-mutes converse with each other?
14. How did the ancients record historical events, without the use of letters?
15. What substitute for letters is used in telegraphy?
16. Have brute animals any kind of language?
By what means do they express themselves?
17. What is known as the language of flowers?
18. Explain the sentiment of each flower, whose signification is known to you?

19. When two or more elementary sounds, or the letters representing them, are used in combination, what is such combination called?

20. Is a single letter ever used as a word?

Give examples.

21. What is a syllable?

22. What is a word of one syllable called? two syllables? three syllables? more than three syllables?

§ 15. PARTS OF SPEECH.

1. Words are employed as signs of ideas, and are divided with respect to their use, into nine general classes, called *parts of speech*.

2. The nine parts of speech are named as follows: *nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, participles, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections*.

3. **Nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs and participles** are termed **principal** parts of speech, because they are used to designate objects and their several classes of attributes.

4. **Adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections** are termed **subordinate** or secondary parts of speech, because they are merely used as modifiers, connectives, etc.

Oral Exercise.

1. How are words employed?
2. Into how many classes are words divided?
3. What are these classes called?
4. Name the parts of speech?
5. Which of the parts of speech are termed principal, and why?
6. Which of the parts of speech are termed subordinate, and why?

§ 16. NOUNS.

1. **Nouns** are words used to name or designate objects: as, *house, tree, city, Boston, James*.

Remark 1. The word, *noun*, is derived from the Latin word, *nomen*, or *name*.

2. A **concrete** noun is one that is used to designate a concrete or real object: as, *water, air, grass, rock*.

3. An **abstract** noun is one that is used to designate an abstract object, or, an attribute conceived of, apart from its subject: as, *honesty, industry, morality, thought, feeling, volition*.

Remark 2. All nouns are concrete, excepting those known as abstract nouns.

4. A **common** noun is one that is used as a *general* name: as, *man, woman, town*.

5. A **proper** noun is one that is used as a *particular* name: as *William, Mary, Cincinnati*.

6. A **singular** noun is one that is used to denote a single object: as, *book, slate, map*.

7. A **plural** noun is one that is used to denote more than one object: as, *books, slates, maps*.

8. A **collective** noun is one that is used to designate a group of similar things as a single object of thought: as, *army, regiment, school, forest*.

9. A **masculine** noun is one that is used to designate an animate object of the *male* sex: as, *father, brother, tailor, gander*.

10. A **feminine** noun is one that is used to designate an animate object of the *female* sex: as, *mother, sister, tailoress, goose*.

11. An **alternative** noun is one that is used to

designate an animate object of either sex: as, *parent, child, teacher, animal*.

12. A **neuter** noun is one that is used to designate an inanimate object: as, *flower, apple, water, earth*.

13. A **possessive** noun is one that is used to denote possession: as, *Anna's book, boys' hats*.

Remark 3. A few alternative nouns as *horse* and *goose*, are also used as masculine or feminine nouns.

Oral Exercise.

1. What are nouns?

Give examples.

2. What is a concrete noun?

Give examples.

3. What is an abstract noun?

Give examples.

4. What is a common noun?

Give examples.

5. What is a proper noun?

Give examples.

6. What is a singular noun?

Give examples.

7. What is a plural noun?

Give examples.

8. What is a collective noun?

Give examples.

9. What is a masculine noun?

Give examples.

10. What is a feminine noun?

Give examples.

11. What is an alternative noun?

Give examples.

12. What is a neuter noun?

Give examples.

13. What is a possessive noun?

Give examples.

14. Point out the nouns in the following list of words and phrases, and explain each, according to the foregoing definitions:—

Mankind, brute, boys, girls, Joseph, uncle, aunt, nephew, niece, Robert, Emily, parent, scholars, Europe, Asia, county, Indiana, herd, cattle, swarm, bees, red apples, large peaches, ripe fruit, color, size, warm weather, black clouds, crooked sticks, long journey, industrious men, industry, honest children, integrity, pious people, a running stream, good actions, flying birds, a tender conscience, conscientiousness, a prudent woman, prudence, ingenious mechanics, ingenuity.

§ 17. PRONOUNS.

1. **Pronouns** are words used as substitutes for nouns: as, *I, we, they, who, what*.

Remark 1. The word, *pronoun*, is derived from the Latin word, *pronomēn*, which means *for a noun*.

2. **Personal** pronouns are such as *stand directly for persons or things*: as, *thou, you, he, it*.

3. **Relative** pronouns are such as *relate to persons or things previously mentioned*: as, the person *who*; the thing *which*; the person or thing *that*.

4. **Interrogative** pronouns are such as are used in asking questions: as, *who* was here? *which* is he? *what* did you say?

NOTE. The nature and use of relative and interrogative pronouns will be more fully explained hereafter.

5. **Possessive** pronouns are such as are used to denote possession: as, *my, thy, his, whose*.

6. **Composite** possessive pronouns are such as stand for both the possessor and the thing possessed: as, *mine* (my book); *yours* (your book).

7. A pronoun that stands for the person or persons speaking, is said to be of the *first person*: as, *I, my, we*.

8. A pronoun that stands for the person or persons addressed, is said to be of the *second person*: as, *thou, you, your*.

9. A pronoun that stands for the person or persons, thing or things spoken of, is said to be of the *third person*: as, *he, his, they*.

10. A **singular** pronoun is one that stands for a single object: as, *I, my, me, it*.

11. A **plural** pronoun is one that stands for more than one object: as, *we, our, us, they*.

12. A **masculine** pronoun is one that denotes the male sex: as, *he, his, him*.

13. A **feminine** pronoun is one that denotes the female sex: as, *she, her, hers*.

14. An **alternative** pronoun is one that may stand for an object of either or no sex: as, *I, thou, you, they*.

15. A **neuter** pronoun is one that stands for inanimate objects, or those without sex: as, *it, its*.

Remark 2. The neuter pronoun, *it*, is often used *alternatively*, as applied to young children, brute animals etc.

16. A simple personal pronoun, with the syllable, *self* or *selves*, affixed to it, is called a compound personal pronoun: as, *myself, ourselves*.

17. The following table embraces all of the regular personal pronouns in English, singular and plural:

Pronouns of the First Person.

Sing. I, my, me, mine, myself.

Plu. We, our, us, ours, ourselves.

Second Person.

Sing. Thou, thy, thee, thine, thyself.

Plu. You, your, yours, yourselves.

Third Person.

Sing. He, his, him, she, her, hers, it, its, himself, herself, itself.

Plu. They, their, them, theirs, themselves.

Oral Exercise.

1. What are pronouns?

Give examples.

2. What are personal pronouns?

Give examples.

3. What are relative pronouns?

Give examples.

4. What are interrogative pronouns?

Give examples.

5. What are possessive pronouns?

Give examples.

6. What are composite possessive pronouns?

Give examples.

7. When is a pronoun said to be of the first person?

Give examples.

8. When is a pronoun said to be of the second person?

Give examples.

9. When is a pronoun said to be of the third person?

Give examples.

10. What is a singular pronoun?

Give examples.

11. What is a plural pronoun?

Give examples.

12. What is a masculine pronoun?

Give examples.

13. What is a feminine pronoun?

Give examples.

14. What is an alternative pronoun?

Give examples.

15. What is a neuter pronoun?

Give examples.

16. What is called a compound personal pronoun?

Give examples.

17. Name the personal pronouns of the first person, singular and plural.

18. Name those of the second person.

19. Name those of the third person.

20. Which of the pronouns in the foregoing table (§ 17) are masculine? which, feminine? which, alternative? which, neuter? which, composite? which, compound personal?

21. Are *ourn*, *yourn*, *hism*, *hern*, and *theirn* correct words?

22. Of what use are personal pronouns?

23. Can you, without them, distinguish between the speaker and the person spoken to?

Let some one try it.

24. Suppose Mary should say, Mary has lost Mary's book—How would you know her to be talking about herself?

25. What pronouns would she use instead of her name, in the foregoing expression?

26. Again, suppose one of you should say, Mary gave Mary's book to Julia, that Julia might not use Julia's brother's book, and spoil Julia's brother's book—

How would such an expression sound?

27. Let some one substitute pronouns in this expression, for such nouns as need not be repeated.

§ 18. ADJECTIVES.

1. **Adjectives** are words used to designate attributes of quality: as, *good* books, *bad* actions; and also, to limit the signification of nouns: as, *this* man, *that* house.

Remark 1. The word, *adjective*, is derived from the Latin word, *adjectivum*, which means, *that which is added*.

2. A **descriptive** adjective is one that designates some attribute of quality: as, *large*, *small*, *black*, *white*, *sweet*, *sour*.

3. A **limiting** adjective is one that limits the signification of a noun, without designating any attribute of quality: as, *the*, *an* or *a*, *this*, *that*, *these*,

those, each, every, either, neither, few, many, several, one, two, three, first, second, last.

Remark 2. Sometimes both limiting and descriptive adjectives are used in connection with the same noun: as, *a good man; those sweet apples.*

Remark 3. Attributes of relation are sometimes designated by adjectives: as, *similar houses*; sometimes by nouns: as, *John's house*; and sometimes by pronouns: as, *his house*.

Note. A further classification of adjectives will be given hereafter.

Oral Exercise.

1. What are adjectives?

Give examples.

2. What is a descriptive adjective?

Give examples.

3. What is a limiting adjective?

Give examples.

4. Point out the adjectives in the following list of words and phrases, and say which are limiting, and which, descriptive:

Apples, any, many, horses, sheep, several, six, long, short, house, thick, broad, thin, a crooked river, much rain, hard wood, three small boys, several round blocks, seven red apples, ripe, juicy pears, many tall trees, the last man, an empty casket, a slender thread, a rough road, these few lessons.

§ 19. VERBS AND PARTICIPLES.

1. **Verbs** are words used to *designate* attributes of action, being and mode of being: as, to *play*, to *exist*, to *grow*; and also, to assert all kinds of attributes of subjects: as, Children *will* play. God *is* omnipotent. Henry *must be* a musician.

2. Some verbs both designate and assert attributes: as, fire *burns* (*does burn*); the sun *shone* (*did shine*).

3. Verbs that are used to *designate* attributes of

action, being or mode of being, are called **attributive** verbs: as, to *play*, to *exist*, to *grow*.

4. Verbs that are used to *assert* attributes of subjects are called **asserting** verbs: as, do, does, did; be, am, was, is, are, were; have, has, had; will, shall, may, can, must, etc.

5. Verbs that are used both to designate and assert attributes are called **composite** verbs because they are attributive and asserting verbs in combination: as fire burns (does burn); the sun shone (did shine.)

6. **Participles** are modifications of the verb, used to denote action, being and mode of being as progressing or completed: as, *playing*, *played*; *growing*, *grown*; and also to assume attributes of subjects: as, the children *having* played, God *being* omnipotent, Henry *having been* a musician.

Note 1. The participles which are used to assume attributes, will be explained in a future section.

7. Participles that denote action, being and mode of being as progressing, are called **progressive** participles: as, *playing*, *existing*, *growing*.

8. Participles that denote action, being and mode of being as completed, are called **perfect** participles: as, *played*, *existed*, *grown*, *finished*.

Remark 1. When a participle is placed before a noun to describe the object designated by the latter, it is called a *participial adjective*.

9. A **participial adjective** is a participle placed before a noun, to describe the object named by it: as, a *running* stream; a *married* man; a *finished* house.

Remark 2. The word, *verb*, is derived from the Latin word,

verbum, or *word*. This part of speech is significantly called the verb or word, because it is considered the most important of the nine classes into which words are divided.

Remark 3. The word, *participle*, is derived from the Latin word, *participium*, or *participant*. Participles are so called because they partake of the nature of both verbs and adjectives.

Remark 4. It will be observed, that the verb, as a designator of attributes, simply denotes action, being and mode of being in a general or unlimited sense; while the participle, besides denoting the same things, expresses the additional ideas of progression and completion. By keeping this truth clearly in mind, the pupil will be able to distinguish more readily between the two parts of speech in question.

Oral Exercise.

1. What is an attribute?
2. What is meant by the word, *assert*?
3. What are verbs?
4. Point out the verbs in the following expressions and tell which designate attributes of action, etc.; which, simply assert; and which, both designate and assert:—

Snow is white. Washington was a patriot. All men must die. Diamonds are brilliant. Horses are quadrupeds. The birds sang. Gold is a precious metal. Children love music. The winds blow. John may leave. Mary should stay. James can read. Julia will sing.

5. What are called attributive verbs?
6. What are called asserting verbs?
7. What are called composite verbs?

Note 2. In explaining the foregoing examples, the pupils must not be permitted, as in other grammars, to consider the asserting verbs, *must*, *may*, *should*, *can* and *will*, as parts of the attributive verbs following them. They are distinct verbs and should be treated as such.

8. What are participles?
9. What are progressive participles?

Give examples.

10. What are perfect participles?

Give examples.

11. Point out the participles in the following examples, telling which are progressive, and which perfect participles:

The farmer is gathering his apples. My task was finished. The birds are singing. Robert is studying. The young man was drowned. My brother was married. The birds have flown. Mary has completed her dress. The trees have fallen. The band is playing. The ship has sailed. The young lady has gone.

12. Point out the asserting verb in each of the foregoing examples.

13. What is a participial adjective?

14. Point out the participial adjectives in the following expressions:

Singing birds; marching troops; three sailing vessels; several burnt buildings; the falling rain; driving snow; faded flowers; the wounded soldier.

15. Point out the nouns, pronouns and adjectives in all of the examples cited in paragraphs 4, 11 and 14 of this exercise, telling the kind of each.

§ 20. PROPOSITIONS.

1. When we think of any object, as a person or a thing, that object becomes a subject of thought.

2. Whenever we speak of an object or subject of thought we ascribe some attribute to it, and in doing so use a form of speech called a *proposition*: as, Honey is sweet. James is a scholar. Fishes can swim.

3. A **proposition** is a form of speech, in which an attribute is asserted of a subject: as, Honey is sweet, etc.

Remark 1. In the foregoing propositions, *honey*, *James* and *fishes* are the subjects; *sweet*, *scholar* and *swim*, the attributes asserted of the subjects; *is* and *can*, the asserting words.

Exercise 1. Tell the subjects, attributes and asserting words of the following propositions:

Lead is heavy. Elephants are large. London is a city.

George can write. William may sing. Henry will work. The ice is melting. The snow has melted. The boy will be tired.

4. Every proposition contains three essential elements, a *subject*, a *predicate*, and a *copula*.

5. The **subject** represents that of which an attribute is asserted.

6. The **predicate** represents that which is asserted of the subject.

Remark 2. To assert is to *predicate*; and the term, *predicate*, means that which is predicated or asserted.

7. The **copula** is that which asserts the predicate, and joins it to the subject.

Remark 3. The word, *copula*, means a coupling or link.

Exercise 2. Tell the subjects, predicates and copulas of the following propositions:

The sun is bright. Our school is large. Robert is a musician. Sarah may dance. The boy must study. The girls are sewing. The clouds have disappeared.

8. The predicate and copula are often contained in one word, when the former represents an attribute of action, being or mode of being, expressed by a verb: as, Thou *lovest*, that is, *dost love*. Thou *lovedst*, that is, *didst love*. He *loves*, that is, *does love*. He *loved*, that is, *did love*. We, you or they *love*, that is, *do love*.

Remark 4. It will be observed, in the first four of the above examples, that the terminations of the copulas—*st*, *dost*, *s* and *d*—are added to the predicate word, *love*, and the preceding letters dropped. In the fifth example such is not the case, evidently because the copula, *do*, does not terminate in a consonant, and therefore, such addition would be impracticable. The combination, *love-o*, would make a very awkward word.

Note 1. The union just explained, substantially takes place in the present and past tenses of all verbs, excepting the past tense of those termed

irregular. In these, a change in the principal vowel of the attributive verb is substituted for a combination of the asserting verb with *it*: as, *wrote*, for *did write*; *sang*, for *did sing*; *saw*, for *did see*.

Remark 5. When the copula of a proposition is omitted or obscurely combined with the predicate, as heretofore explained, it may be made to appear by changing the form of the proposition into that of a question, thus: *Mary writes—Does Mary write? Mary wrote—Did Mary write?*

Exercise 3. Supply the unexpressed copulas in the following propositions, and state them as amended, thus: *I run—I do run. I ran—I did run. Thou runest—Thou dost run. Thou ranest—Thou didst run.*

Time flies. Birds fly. Thou singest. She sings. He sang. They sang. You see. Thou seest. Thou sawest. He saw. We travel. They traveled. You wrote. We walk. Thou walkest. Thou walkedst.

9. When the subject of a proposition represents some person or persons addressed, it is often omitted: as, *do (thou or you) come, so that, when the copula is also omitted, the predicate stands alone for the whole proposition: as, Come. Go. Stay.*

Note 2. In most, if not all previous works upon Language, the verb, *to be*, in one or other of its forms, is considered as the only copulative word. But a little intelligent reflection should be sufficient to convince any one that all of the, *so-called*, auxiliary verbs are just as much entitled to be ranked as copulative words, as the one referred to. They are certainly used to assert the predicate, and join it to the subject; for which reason they are copulas and nothing else.

The ordinary manner of developing the copula, where it is not expressed, *i. e.*, by substituting for a verbal predicate, what is known as the progressive form of the verb, is exceedingly faulty, inasmuch as the substituted form never conveys the same sense as the original word. Thus: if, in the proposition, *Lions roar*, we substitute the phrase, *are roaring*, for the predicate, *roar*, we give a different meaning from that intended. When we say, *Lions roar*, we make a general statement, applicable to all lions; but when we say, *Lions are roaring*, we assert that some lions are in the act of roaring at this particular time.—See, Verbs and Participles (§ 19), Remark 4.

Oral Exercise.

1. What is an object? (§ 13.)
2. What is an attribute? (§ 13.)
3. When does an object become a subject of thought?
4. When does an object become a subject of speech?
5. What is a proposition?

Give examples.

6. What does the subject of a proposition represent?
7. What does the predicate of a proposition represent?
8. What is the meaning of the term, *predicate*?
9. What is the copula of a proposition?
10. What is the meaning of the word, *copula*?
11. Point out the subject, predicate and copula in each of the following propositions:

God is love. Solomon was wise. Washington was brave. Ice is cold. Horses can run. The stars are shining. The sun is setting. My brother was here. The house is yonder. Your friends will be there. I am sick. Thou art sleepy. You are mistaken. He is tired. She is modest. The flowers are faded. Several trees have fallen. The moon must be rising. His friends may have gone. They will be late. Fire burns. Rain falls. Vapors rise. Bees sting.

12. Predicate attributes of the following named subjects, using no other words than nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs and participles:

Horses, cows, sheep, dogs, cats, mice, mankind, men, women, children, boys, girls, the ship, my brother, your sister, our teacher, this animal, that lion, these apples, those peaches, many men, several scholars, some people.

Note 3. Let the teacher write upon a blackboard or slate, the propositions furnished as just directed, and then require the pupils to analyze them, after the following

Model for Analysis:

Horses can run, is a proposition, because it is a form of speech in which something is asserted of a subject.

The word, *horse*, is the subject of the proposition, because it represents that of which something is asserted.

Run is the predicate, because it represents that which is asserted of the subject.

Can is the copula, because it asserts the predicate, and joins it to the subject.

The cows bellowed, is a proposition, because etc.

The word, *cows*, is the subject of the proposition, because etc.

Bellowed is the combined predicate and copula, equivalent to *did bellow*.

Sheep are quadrupeds, is a preposition, because etc.

Quadrupeds is the predicate etc.

Are is the copula etc.

§ 21. FORMS OF PROPOSITIONS.

Question.—What is a proposition?

Remark 1. Hitherto, we have considered propositions in accordance with the definition just cited by you; that is, as direct assertions or declarations. We come now, to treat of other forms, which, though not in strict harmony with this definition, it is found expedient to class with propositions, rather than complicate the study of language by giving them separate names. These forms are used in asking questions, commanding, exhorting and entreating. They are known as the interrogative and imperative forms of propositions.

Exercise.

(a.) When we ask a question, as, Is John studious? do we, strictly speaking, *assert* an attribute of the subject, John, or do we inquire as to its possession by the subject?

(b.) When we issue a command, as, Be thou studious, do we *assert* an attribute of the subject, thou?

What then do we do?

1. The *declarative* form of a proposition, is the form used in asserting something of the subject: as, He is brave.

2. The *interrogative* form of a proposition is the form used in asking something about the subject: as, Is he brave? Will he be victorious?

Remark 2. Observe that in the interrogative form, the subject is always placed after the copula, when the latter consists of but one word, and after the first word of the copula, when it consists of more than one.

3. The **imperative** form of a proposition is the form used in commanding, exhorting or entreating the subject to do or be something: as, Do thou or you study. Study, thou or you. Study. Be thou or you studious. Be studious.

Remark 3. Observe, that in the imperative form the subject is placed after the copula, when the latter is expressed, and after the predicate, when the copula is omitted; also that the subject and copula may, either or both of them, be omitted.

4. The declarative, interrogative and imperative forms of propositions may be changed, one into another; but in changing them it will sometimes be found necessary to vary the forms of the copulas: as, *Declarative*—Thou *dost* study. You *do* study. Thou *art* studious. You *are* studious. *Interrogative*—*Dost* thou study? *Do* you study? *Art* thou studious? *Are* you studious? *Imperative*—*Do* thou study. *Do* you study. *Be* thou studious. *Be* you studious.

Oral Exercise.

1. What is the declarative form of a proposition?

Give examples.

What is a declaration?

2. What is the interrogative form of a proposition?

Give examples

What is an interrogation?

3. What is the imperative form of a proposition?

(a.) What is a command?

Give examples.

(b.) What is an exhortation?

Give examples.

(c.) What is an entreaty?

Give examples.

4. Turn to the examples, cited in the exercises of the last section, and change as many of them as you can, into the interrogative and imperative forms.

5. Change each of the following propositions into the other two described forms:

The lady has departed. My father has returned. Will the man die? Can he live? You may read. Sing, thou. Are the apples ripe? Begone, tempter.

6. Analyze the foregoing propositions, both before and after they are changed as directed.

Model.

The lady has departed, is a declarative proposition because it contains a direct assertion.

The word, *lady*, is the subject &c.

Departed is the predicate &c.

Has is the copula &c.

Has the lady departed, is an interrogative proposition, because it contains a question.

The word, *lady*, is the subject &c.

Do thou depart, is an imperative proposition, because it contains a command.

The word, *thou*, is the subject &c.

§ 22. PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS.

Remark 1. It was stated in section fifteen that nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs and participles are called the principal parts of speech, because they are used to designate objects and their attributes. But an additional reason appears in the last two sections for considering them such, in that, we find them the only parts of speech which can be used as subjects, predicates and copulas of propositions.

1. The **subject** of a proposition may be either a noun, a pronoun, or some equivalent of a noun.

2. The **predicate** of a proposition may be either

a noun, pronoun, adjective, verb, participle, or some equivalent of a noun or an adjective.

3. The **copula** of a proposition is always constituted of one, two or three of the asserting verbs: *as, will, will be, will have been.*

Remark 2. The equivalents of nouns and adjectives, referred to above, are phrases and subordinate propositions, which will be explained hereafter.

4. A **noun** or a **pronoun** used as subject, designates the topic of the proposition.

5. A **noun** or a **pronoun** used as predicate, designates some attribute of relation: (§ 13, ¶¶ 17, 18.) *as,*

(a.) *Identity*—That building is the *capitol*. Thou art *he*.

(b.) *Class*—The house was a *church*. James will be a *physician*.

(c.) *Possession*—The horse was *John's*. The carriage is *mine*.

(d.) *Kinship*—The man was my *brother*. The lady was Mary's *aunt*.

(e.) *Position* or *Office*—Jackson was *president*. That piece is the *handle*.

(f.) *General relation*—The men were *companions*.

Remark 3. The relations existing between objects are so numerous and diversified, that they can not all be classified under specific heads. When, therefore, one is met with, which can not be readily defined, it will be found convenient to call it a general relation, as in the last example.

Remark 4. Some instances of relation will be found, that may be classed under either of two heads, as in the example, *That piece is the handle*. Here the relation may be considered, either as one of identity or one of office.

Exercise 1.

(a.) Write, or dictate to the teacher, to be written for the class, five propositions asserting identity; five, asserting class; five, asserting possession; five, asserting kinship; and five, asserting position or office.

(b.) After analyzing the propositions furnished as directed, name the parts of speech employed in each, telling in the case of nouns, whether they are concrete or abstract; common or proper; singular, plural or collective; masculine, feminine, alternative or neuter; possessive. In the case of pronouns, whether they are personal, relative or interrogative; if personal, simple or compound; possessive or composite possessive; first, second or third person; singular or plural; masculine, feminine, alternative or neuter. In the case of verbs, whether they are attributive, asserting or composite.

6. An **adjective** used as predicate, designates an attribute, either of relation or of quality: (§ 13, ¶¶ 10-14.) as,

Relation.

(a.) *Equality*—The two parts are *equal*. The sums are *unequal*.

(b.) *Resemblance*—The houses are *alike*. The grounds are *dissimilar*.

(c.) *Succession*—That boy was *first*. The girl was *last*. The captain was *foremost*.

Exercise 2.

(a.) Write five propositions asserting equality; five, asserting resemblance, and five asserting succession.

(b.) Analyze the propositions and name the parts of speech, as in the preceding exercise, telling in the case of adjectives whether they are limiting, descriptive, or participial.

Primary Qualities.

(a.) *Extension*—The river is *long*. The fence was *high*.

(b.) *Figure or form*—The park was *square*. The block is *round*.

(c.) *Size or quantity*—The tree is *large*. Fruit is *plentiful*.

(d.) *Density or solidity*—Metals are *dense*. The atmosphere is *rare*. The block is *solid*. Wood is *porous*.

(e.) *Place or situation*—The house is *yonder*. The man is *here*. The lady was *there*. *Where* is the child? The sun is *up*. The moon is *down*.

(f.) *Mobility*—That body is *movable*. The rock was *immovable*.

Secondary Qualities.

(g.) *Color*—Our apples are *red*. My coat is *black*.

(h.) *Sound*—The tone is *loud*. Her voice was *clear*.

(i.) *Heat*—The water will be *hot*. The weather must be *warm*.

(j.) *Taste*—The oranges are *sweet*. The grapes are *sour*.

(k.) *Odor*—The flowers were *fragrant*. The atmosphere is *inodorous*.

Exercise 3.

(a.) Write five propositions asserting extension; five, asserting figure or form; five, asserting size or quantity; five, asserting density or solidity; five, asserting place or situation; five, asserting mobility; five, asserting color; five, asserting sonorous qualities; five, asserting tactual qualities; five, asserting sapid qualities; five, asserting odorous qualities; and ten, asserting other secondary qualities.

(b.) Analyze the propositions and point out the parts of speech as in the preceding exercise.

7. A **verb** or a **participle** used as predicate,

designates an attribute of action, being or mode of being: (§ 13, ¶ 10.) as,

(a.) *Action*—Fishes can *swim*. The birds are *flying*. The people have *dined*.

(b.) *Being*—God does *exist*. *He* will be *existing* (forever).

(c.) *Mode of being*—The boy may *sleep*. The trees are *standing*. The flowers have *withered*.

Exercise 4.

(a.) Write five propositions asserting action, with verbs as predicates; five, asserting being or existence; and five, asserting mode of being.

(b.) Write five propositions asserting action with progressive participles as predicates; five, asserting being; and five, asserting mode of being.

(c.) Write five propositions asserting action with perfect participles as predicates; five, asserting being; and five, asserting mode of being.

(d.) Analyze the propositions and point out the parts of speech, as in the preceding exercise, telling in the case of verbs, whether they denote action, being or mode of being; and in the case of participles, whether they are progressive or perfect, and whether they denote action, being or mode of being.

Note 1. As it is sometimes quite difficult to decide whether a verb or a participle denotes action, being or mode of being, this distinction need not be rigidly exacted, especially with young pupils.

8. One or more verbs used as the copula of a proposition, simply assert, and nothing else.

Note 2. In the sixth paragraph of this section, under the head of primary qualities, class (e.) *place or situation*, it will be seen that the words *yonder, here, there, where, up, down* and the like are classed as adjectives, when used, as in the examples cited, whereas they are usually considered adverbs in all such cases. As with the words just referred to, so in this work will it be with such words as, *present, absent, early, late, over* etc., when similarly employed; that is, as predicates of propositions, thus: The gentleman was *present*, but the lady was *absent*. James is *early*, but Mary will be *late*. The war is *over*.

The Author's reasons for this novel, but obviously *proper* classification may be briefly stated as follows:

1. Whatever may be asserted or predicated of any given subject, must be an attribute of that subject, and the word or words designating the attribute must constitute the predicate of the proposition employed.

2. No other words than *nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs* and *participles* can be used as predicates of propositions.

3. In the cases cited, the words in question designate something which is asserted of the several given subjects, and hence, constitute predicates of the respective propositions. Therefore, as no other words than nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs and participles can be used as predicates, the words in question must belong to one or other of these five classes; and as they are, obviously, neither nouns, pronouns, verbs nor participles, they must be adjectives.

4. Again, as place or situation, whether in space or time, is one of the primary qualities of objects—a fact recognized by all eminent philosophers—and as all words used to designate attributes of quality are adjectives, so the words in question, being used to designate attributes of the kind mentioned, must be adjectives.

5. Still further: logicians tell us—See J. Stuart Mill's "System of Logic," page 16, that "An adverb can not under any circumstances (except when its mere letters and syllables are spoken of) figure as one of the terms of a proposition:" hence if the words under discussion "figure" as predicates of propositions, and they surely do, they can not be adverbs.

6. Finally: if the words under review are used as adverbs, modifying the asserting verb, *to be*, in all of the cases heretofore referred to, then the *predicate* word in each of the following propositions must also be an adverb; for the logical construction is similar throughout:

The house is *red*. The man is *old*. The lady was *married*. Who is the child? The sun has *risen*. The moon has *set*. The gentleman was our *guest*. The lady was an *absentee*. James is *prompt*. Mary will be *tardy*. The war is *finished*.

Who would think of calling these last predicate words, *adverbs*? And again, if the words, *yonder, here, there, where, up, down, present, absent, early, late* and *over*, are adverbs in the cases cited, what are the *predicates* of these propositions?

Note 3. The source of the popular error which has led to the improper classification of the attributive words treated of in the preceding note, is undoubtedly due to the confounding of the two senses of the verb, *to be*, i. e., the attributive and the asserting sense—But this subject will be fully discussed in a future section, under the head of "the verbs *do, be, have* and *will*."

Oral Exercise.

1. Which are the principal parts of speech?
2. Why are they so called?
3. Which of them may be used as subjects of propositions?
4. Which, as predicates?
5. Which, as copulas?

6. What is designated by a noun or a pronoun used as subject?

7. What is designated by a noun or a pronoun used as predicate?

8. Name some of the kinds of attributes of relation, and give examples.

9. What is designated by an adjective used as predicate?

10. Name some of these kinds of attributes of relation, and give examples?

11. Name the primary attributes of quality, and give examples.

12. Name some of the secondary attributes of quality, and give examples.

13. What is designated by a verb or a participle used as predicate?

14. Give some examples of action; some, of being; some, of mode of being.

15. What is done by verbs used as copulas of propositions?

§ 23. SUBORDINATE ELEMENTS.

Nouns, Adjectives and Participles.

Remark 1. Words used to designate attributes, whether of quality, relation, action or any other class, are called *attributive* words; and those used to name or designate objects are called *object* words.

1. When an attributive word is placed in immediate connection with an object word, as, the *bright* sun, instead of being used as the predicate of a proposition, as, the sun is *bright*, it becomes a subordinate element, and the attribute denoted by it is said to be assumed of the object designated.

2. Nouns, adjectives and participles are often used as subordinate elements to assume attributes of subjects: as, *excellent* fruit; *falling* leaves; *Dr.* Jones.

Remark 2. Two or more words used in connection without forming a proposition, constitute what is called a *phrase*: as, in this place; several men; beautiful thoughts.

3. A phrase containing an object word with one or more attributive words relating to it, is called an *attributive phrase*: as, red apples; growing trees; many wounded soldiers.

4. An **attributive phrase** may be used as the subject or predicate of a proposition: as, *Those red apples* are large. *Those large apples* are red. Those objects are *large, red apples*. These men are *wounded soldiers*.

Oral Exercise.

1. What are limiting words? (§ 18, ¶ 3) attributive words? object words?

2. When does an attributive word become a subordinate element?

3. What is said of the attribute denoted by an attributive word used subordinately?

4. Which of the principle parts of speech are often used subordinately, to assume instead of predicating attributes?

5. What is a phrase?

6. What is called an attributive phrase?

7. How may an attributive phrase be used?

8. Point out the limiting words, as, *the, an* or *a, this, that* etc., the attributive words, and the object words in the following phrases:

The large trees; the setting sun; a burning house; an open door; three grown persons; an exhausted horse; many long sticks; several flying birds; the driving snow; four young crows; each red house; a flowing river; a few studious pupils; Captain Smith.

9. Convert each of the foregoing phrases into a proposition, by predicating of the several objects named, the attributes assumed of them, thus: The trees are large.

10. Convert the following propositions into attributive

phrases, by assuming of each object named, the attribute predicated of it:

The grass is green. The flowers are beautiful. The sky is blue. Several horses are running. The three ladies are married. The church is yonder. Six pupils are absent. Music is delightful. Exercise is healthful. Our children are growing. My father's house is finished. The animal is dangerous. Washington was a general. Jackson was president.

11. Employ each of the attributive phrases just formed, as the subject of a new proposition, supplying an appropriate predicate and copula, thus: Green grass is beautiful.

12. Do the same thing with the phrases under paragraph, *eight*, of this exercise: thus, The large trees are dead.

Remark 4. Some instances will be found, in which assumed attributes can not be predicated, and others, in which predicated attributes can not be assumed, without more or less change in the words employed: as, the late president; the recent storm; the following year. The man is asleep. The child is awake. Your slate is there.

13. Convert, as well as you can, the phrases just cited, into propositions, and the propositions into attributive phrases.

Written Exercise.

Rule 1. Commence with a capital letter, every proper noun and every word derived from a proper noun.

Rule 2. Commence with a capital letter the first word of every sentence.

Rule 3. Place a period (.) at the end of every declarative, and every imperative sentence.

Rule 4. Place a note of interrogation (?) at the end of every interrogative sentence.

Remark 5. A sentence, as will be hereafter explained, may contain one or more propositions. Hitherto, we have been dealing with *simple* sentences, or those containing a simple

proposition each, and we will continue to deal with such until other kinds of sentences shall be explained.

Note. Limiting words may be used at discretion in this and future exercises, as they have been in previous ones.

1. Write ten propositions with nouns, adjectives or participles as predicates, but without attributive words in the subjects.

2. Write ten, with attributive phrases as subjects.

3. Write ten, with attributive phrases as predicates.

4. Write ten, with attributive phrases, both as subjects and predicates.

Remark 6. *To parse*, is to name and explain the parts of speech as directed in the exercises of section twenty-two (§ 22).

5. Analyze and parse the propositions just written, or as many of them as the teacher may think necessary.

§ 24. SUBORDINATE ELEMENTS.

Possessive Nouns and Pronouns.

1. Possessive nouns and pronouns are used as subordinate elements, restricting the meaning of the nouns before which they are placed, by confining it to particular objects of the kinds designated; as, *Julia's desk*; *my book*; *your slate*.

Remark 1. By some Grammarians, as Noah Webster, possessive pronouns are classed as limiting adjectives; but there seems to be no more reason for this, than for making a like disposition of possessive nouns; therefore they will, in this work, be ranked as pronouns.

2. Possessive nouns may be used as predicates, standing, like composite possessive pronouns, for both the possessor and the thing possessed: as, *The desk is Julia's*.

Remark 2. It is not unusual in cases like the foregoing, to construe the possessive noun as a limiting word belonging to

a predicate noun, unexpressed: as, The desk is *Julia's desk*; but, as the repetition of the subject noun as predicate is unnecessary, if not inelegant, it would appear to be more correct in such cases, to consider the possessive noun as a principal element.

3. Composite possessive pronouns are always *properly* used as principal elements, but never so, as subordinate ones, thus: The books were *mine* (my books). The paper must have been *his* (his paper).

Remark 3. In ancient writings it was customary to use the composite possessive pronoun as a subordinate element, thus: "My son, give me *thine* heart;" "*mine* eye is consumed, because of grief;" but modern taste does not sanction this usage, except as a poetical license.

Remark 4. In such expressions as, Thomas is a son of *mine*; or the man was a friend of *ours*; the pronouns, *mine* and *ours*, would seem to stand for the compound personal pronouns, *myself* and *ourselves*, which designate both the possessor and the thing possessed; but this use of the composite pronoun, though sanctioned by custom, is not without objection. It would be more logical and elegant, to say, Thomas is my son; The man was one of our friends; etc.

Oral Exercise.

1. When are possessive nouns and pronouns used as subordinate elements?

2. When are possessive nouns and composite possessive pronouns used as principal elements?

3. Can a simple possessive pronoun ever be used as a principal element?

4. Name the simple and composite possessive pronouns of the first person, singular and plural, (my, mine; our, ours.)

5. Name those of the second person.

6. Name those of the third person, masculine, feminine, alternative and neuter.

7. Is there any instance in which the simple and composite forms are alike?

8. Point it out.

9. Are there any masculine, feminine or neuter pronouns of the first person, either singular or plural?

10. Are there any of the second person?

11. Are there any of the third person, besides those which are singular?

12. If not masculine, feminine or neuter, what are they called?

13. Why are they so named?

14. Correct the verbal errors in the following expressions:

That book is yourn. Mine father was here. I am thine uncle. The apple is hern. James said it was hisn. We thought the horse was ourn, but they said it was theirn. Hisn was not the house I meant. Is that boy a pupil of yourn? The man, hisself, was here. They did it, theirselves.

Written Exercise.

Rule 5. In writing a singular possessive noun, put an apostrophe (') with *s*, after the primitive form of the noun, thus: John's ball; James's hat; for pity's sake.

Exception. When two or more syllables of the noun end in *s*, or other letters with a similar sound, so that an additional *s* would give it an unpleasant, hissing sound, add an apostrophe only, thus: Moses' house; for Jesus' sake; for righteousness' sake; for conscience' sake.

Rule 6. In writing a plural possessive noun, put an apostrophe only, when the noun ends in *s*; but when it ends with any other letter, put an apostrophe and *s*, as in the case of singular nouns, thus: boys' hats; girls' dresses; men's boots; children's shoes.

1. Write five propositions containing singular possessive nouns as subordinate elements limiting the subjects.
2. Write five, with singular possessive pronouns limiting the subjects.
3. Write five, containing singular possessive nouns as subordinate elements limiting the predicates.
4. Write five, with singular possessive pronouns limiting the predicates.
5. Write five, containing singular possessive nouns as predicates.
6. Write five, containing singular, composite possessive pronouns as predicates.
7. Repeat each of the six preceding exercises, employing a plural, instead of a singular noun or pronoun.
8. Analyze and parse as many of the propositions thus written, as the teacher may think necessary.

§ 25. SUBORDINATE ELEMENTS.

Objective Nouns and Pronouns.

1. Some attributive verbs and participles require nouns, pronouns, or equivalents of nouns to complete their meaning: as, John rang the *bell*. John is ringing the *bell*. John has rung the *bell*. I heard *it*.

2. Verbs and participles that require nouns, pronouns etc. to complete their meaning are called transitive verbs and participles, because the actions designated by them pass from the subjects or actors to recipient objects.

3. Words used to complete the meaning of transitive verbs and participles, as just explained, are called objective elements, or the objects of such verbs and participles.

Remark 1. The object of a verb or participle may be either a noun, a pronoun, or some equivalent of a noun.

Remark 2. In the examples cited in paragraph, *one*, *John* and *I*, are the subjects or actors; *rang*, is a *transitive* verb, and *ringing*, *rung* and *heard*, *transitive* participles; *bell* and *it*, are objects of the verbs and participles mentioned.

4. Verbs and participles that do not require nouns, pronouns etc. to complete their meaning, as heretofore explained, are called *intransitive* verbs and participles: as, birds fly; fishes swim; flowers grow; the horses are running; the building has fallen.

Ques. Do birds fly anything; fishes swim anything; or flowers grow anything?

Oral Exercise.

1. What verbs are called transitive?
2. What participles are called transitive?
3. What is an objective element?
4. When is a noun or a pronoun an objective element or object?

5. Point out the verbs and participles in the following expressions, telling which are transitive, and which intransitive:

They are firing the cannon. Many people are assembling. Some celebrated speakers will address the meeting. The announcement has been made. The audience has assembled. Do you hear the loud hurrahs? Go ye. Strike the light guitar. That cross dog has bitten my son. The young lady will sing a beautiful song.

Remark 3. Intransitive verbs and participles are sometimes used transitively, as in the last example. Though the lady is said to sing a song, the action does not pass from her to an object, except in form. So it is, when one says, he *dreamed* a dream, *spoke* a speech, *has run* a race, and the like. In such cases, the verb or participle is termed an intransitive verb or participle used transitively, and the following word is called its object, as in the case of a *real* transitive verb.

Written Exercise.

1. Write five propositions containing transitive verbs as predicates limited by appropriate objective elements.
2. Write five, with transitive progressive participles as predicates.
3. Write five, with transitive perfect participles as predicates.
4. Write five propositions containing intransitive verbs as predicates.
5. Write five, with intransitive progressive participles as predicates.
6. Write five, with intransitive perfect participles as predicates.
7. Write ten propositions containing intransitive verbs or participles used transitively, as predicates.
8. Analyze and parse the propositions as heretofore directed.

§ 26. SUBORDINATE ELEMENTS.

Adverbs.

Remark 1. Hitherto, the subordinate elements treated of, have been the principal parts of speech, used subordinately. We come now to the secondary parts of speech, which are always used in a subordinate capacity.

1. As the signification of nouns is modified by the several principal parts of speech used subordinately, so, that of verbs and participles is modified by a special class of secondary parts of speech, called *adverbs*: as, The horse ran *fast*. The river is flowing *rapidly*. The boy has been *severely* whipped. The apples are *not* ripe. Winter will *soon* be here. God is *always* present. Bonaparte was *then* emperor.

Exercise 1. Point out the adverbs in the foregoing examples, specifying the words to which they belong.

2. The signification of adjectives, whether used as principal or subordinate elements, is likewise modified by adverbs, and the same is true of other *adverbs*: as, That *very* small man is *quite* old. Ambitious pupils study their lessons *very* diligently. The ship sailed *exceedingly* fast. A *moderately* strong wind was filling our sails. Our teacher is *remarkably* patient.

Exercise 2. Point out the adverbs in the foregoing examples, specifying the words to which they belong.

3. **Adverbs** are words used to modify the signification of verbs, participles, adjectives and other *adverbs*.

Remark 2. The word, *adverb*, is derived from the Latin word, *adverbium*, which means, *added to a verb*.

4. Adverbs, unlike all of the principle parts of speech, can never be employed as either of the essential elements of a proposition—See § 22, Note 2.

5. Adverbs usually express either time, place, cause, degree or manner: Those expressing time, place, cause and the like, belong to the copula or asserting element of the proposition; those expressing degree, belong to adjectives and other *adverbs*; and those expressing manner, belong to attributive verbs and participles.

Remark 3. There may be some exceptions to the statement contained in the last paragraph, but, if any, they are so few that it is deemed safe to set it forth as a rule.

Remark 4. Where an adverb is used in connection with a composite verb or participle, that is, one containing both the attributive and asserting element, it will be well to distinguish as to which of the two elements it belongs. This, however, will not always be an easy task.

Oral Exercise.

1. What parts of speech may be used to modify the signification of nouns?

2. What are words called, that modify the signification of verbs and participles?

3. What are words called, that modify the signification of adjectives and adverbs?

4. What are adverbs?

Give examples.

5. What is the meaning of the word, *adverb*?

6. Are adverbs added to other words, besides verbs?

7. What ones?

8. Does, then, the term, *adverbs*, fully express the use of the part of speech to which it is applied?

9. Point out the adverbs in the following propositions, specifying the words to which they severally belong:

The class may now be dismissed. Wallace is a very studious boy. Thomas is also quite industrious. Can not Bettie sing sweetly? She will soon be an accomplished musician. Other pupils are likewise improving rapidly. Very many pupils do not study diligently. Industrious scholars will certainly succeed. Is not strict integrity always commendable? Sometimes, Alice does not answer her teacher quite loud enough.

10. Express the copula in each of the following propositions, and tell whether the adverb belongs to it, or the predicate verb:

The sun shone brightly. The traveler then departed. John certainly reads well. His brother never reads. The ship sailed majestically. Thou often sangest feelingly. Thou truly talkedst fluently. Speaks he not wisely? Our friends visit us frequently.

Remark 5. Adjectives are often improperly used for adverbs: as, David recited his lesson *bad*.

11. Correct the following expressions by substituting adverbs for adjectives improperly used:

The lady smiled serene. My teacher scolded me very

severe. I did not play my piece rapid enough. The gentleman administered his reproof quite mild. The young lady sings very nice. Swift glides the bonny boat. My companions studied their lessons diligent. The work was executed quite clever. That piece was performed very good. James works exceeding fast. The writing was done very poor.

Written Exercise.

Rule 7. All adverbs should be placed as near as may be to the words which they modify.

1. Write ten propositions with verbal predicates modified by adverbs.

2. Write ten, with participial predicates modified by adverbs.

3. Write ten, with adjective predicates modified by adverbs.

4. Write ten, with copulas modified by adverbs.

5. Write ten, with adverbs or subordinate adjectives modified by adverbs.

6. Analyze and parse several of the propositions of each class written.

Remark 6. Sometimes, two or more adverbs, either with or without an attributive word, are used together, constituting what is called an adverbial phrase: as, The troops were *soon afterwards* disbanded. The horse ran *as fast as possible*.

Phrases like the latter are contracted propositions, of which a full explanation will be given hereafter.

Note. By some Grammarians such words and phrases as, *yesterday, to-day, to-night, to-morrow, last week, next month*, and the like, are construed as adverbs, because they denote time; but this is clearly as erroneous as it would be to call such expressions as, *to town, at home*, and the like, adverbs, because they denote place. The truth is, that, *yesterday, to-day, to-night, to-morrow, week* and *month* are just as truly nouns, as are *town* and *home*. The former words, like the latter, are sequents or objects of prepositions, the relative words or prepositions being understood, as in many other forms of grammatical construction.

§ 27. SUBORDINATE ELEMENTS.

Prepositions.

Remark 1. It has been shown in previous sections (§§ 13,

22) that objects bear certain relations to each other which may be expressed by several of the principal parts of speech. But there are other relations, not only between objects themselves, but likewise between them and various attributes, that can not be so expressed, and therefore require the employment of special words for the purpose. These words are called *prepositions*.

1. **Prepositions** are words used to show the relations of objects and attributes: as, The cover *of* a book; good *for* me; went *to* ride; came *from* home; paid *for* singing.

Remark 2. The word, *preposition*, is derived from the Latin word, *prepositio*, and means, *that which is placed before*. Prepositions are so named, because they are usually placed before the principal one of the two terms expressing the relation.

Remark 3. The preposition, *of*, frequently denotes possession or ownership: as, The house *of* my father; the palace *of* the King; the land *of* the blessed.

2. Of the two terms involved in the expression of a relation, the first is called the *antecedent*, and the second is called the *sequent*.

Remark 4. The sequent is usually termed, *the sequent of the preposition* showing the relation.

3. The **sequent** of a preposition may be either a noun, pronoun, verb, participle, or some equivalent of a noun.

4. The following table embraces most of the prepositions in common use:

aboard,	before,	excepting,	through,
about,	behind,	for,	throughout,
above,	below,	from,	till,
across,	beneath,	in, into,	to,
after,	beside,	mid,	touching,
against,	besides,	midst,	toward,
along,	between,	notwithstanding,	towards,
amid,	betwixt,	of,	under,

amidst,	beyond,	out,	underneath,
among,	but,	on,	until.
amongst,	by,	over,	unto,
around,	concerning,	past,	up,
as,	down,	regarding,	upon,
at,	during,	respecting,	with,
athwart,	ere,	round,	within,
bating,	except,	since,	without,

Oral Exercise.

1. In the previous sections, what parts of speech have been employed in expressing relation?

2. What are the special words called, which are used to indicate relation?

3. What are prepositions?

4. What is frequently denoted by the preposition, *of*?

5. What are the respective names, given to the two terms expressing a relation?

6. Point out the prepositions in the following expressions, and indicate the antecedent and sequent of each relation expressed:

"The light of other days is faded." Come thou with me. Are you going to sing? The room is ready for dancing. I informed him concerning the route. They must reach their destination during the day. No person was present except the invited guests. The man was paid for carrying the trunk. "In him there is no guile." "Open Confession is good for the soul."

"Still stands the hill behind the mill,

Just where the river whirls,

Adown whose side we used to glide

When you and I were girls."

7. Analyze and parse the foregoing examples.

Remark 5. The last example contains a word that belongs to a class not yet explained.—What is it?

8. What is the word, *whose*, in the last example, and what does it denote?

9. What do the adverbs, *where* and *when*, do, besides modifying the verbs to which they belong.—See next section (§).

§ 28. SUBORDINATE ELEMENTS.

Connectives.

Remark 1. In expressing our thoughts, it is often found necessary to employ other words than those heretofore explained, for the purpose of connecting the latter, as well as phrases and propositions. The special words so employed are called *conjunctions*. But relative pronouns, adverbs and prepositions are also used at times for this purpose, and when so employed, take the name of connectives or conjunctions.

1. **Conjunctions** are words used to connect other words, and also phrases and propositions: as, gunpowder is made of sulphur, charcoal *and* saltpetre. Mary *or* her sister will be here sooner *or* later. The man drove his horse up the street *and* around the corner. The bell has rung *and* we must go to school. *If* we do not start soon we will be late. I am not yet ready *or* I would go with you immediately.

Remark 2. The word, *conjunction*, is derived from the Latin word, *conjunctio*, and means, *that which joins*.

2. Conjunctions are divided into two general classes, termed *co-ordinate* and *subordinate*.

3. A **co-ordinate** conjunction is one that unites elements of equal rank or grade in the sentence: as, Grammar *and* Composition are kindred studies. Thomas likes play, *but* dislikes study.

Remark 3. Co-ordinate connectives are generally, if not always, such as belong to the special class of conjunctions referred to in remark, *one*. Sometimes two or more of them are used together, constituting what is called a conjunctive phrase: as, together with, as well as, inasmuch as, so as, but that, etc.

Remark 4. Conjunctions that always go in pairs, as, either—or, neither—nor, are called correlative conjunctions. Such

are always coordinate. Thus: *either* he or his brother must come. *Neither* rudeness nor profanity is tolerated in good society.

4. A **subordinate** conjunction is one that unites elements of unequal rank or grade in the sentence: as, We will, *if* the weather should be favorable, commence our journey to-morrow. The man *whom* you saw here, has left us. We will move into the house, *when* it is ready. I know the place *where* he lives. I can not leave *before* my task is finished.

Remark 5. Subordinate connectives are generally, if not always, used to join subordinate propositions to principal ones, as in the examples last cited. Relative pronouns, adverbs and prepositions used as connectives, belong to this class. The first mentioned, *i. e.* relative pronouns, frequently serve in the double capacity of connective, and subject of the subordinate or modifying proposition: as, Him *who* would deceive me, I can not trust.

5. The following tables embrace most of the conjunctions in common use:

and,	excepting,	or,	then,
although,	either,	provided,	therefore,
albeit,	for,	since,	though,
as,	if,	seeing,	unless,
also,	lest,	save,	wherefore,
because,	moreover,	still,	whether,
both,	neither,	so,	whereas,
but,	nor,	than,	while.
except,	notwithstanding,	that,	yet,
as—as,	both—and,		neither—nor,
although—yet,	if—then,		whether—or,
as—so,	either—or,		though—yet,

Oral Exercise.

1. For what are connectives used?
2. What are the words called which are used as connectives?

3. Besides the special class called conjunctions, what other parts of speech are used as connectives?

4. What are conjunctions?

5. Into how many general classes are they divided?

6. What is a co-ordinate conjunction?

Give examples.

7. What is a subordinate conjunction?

Give examples.

8. Co-ordinate connectives generally or always belong to what class?

9. To what class do relative pronouns, adverbs and prepositions belong, when used as connectives?

10. When two or more conjunctions are used together, what are they called?

11. What are correlative conjunctions?

Give examples.

12. In what double capacity are relative pronouns sometimes employed?

13. Point out the connectives in the following sentences, telling which are co-ordinate, and which, subordinate; also, which are regular conjunctions; which, relative pronouns; which, adverbial conjunctions; and which, prepositional conjunctions:

Love, mercy and justice are attributes of Deity. "Read thy doom in the flowers, which fade and die." "The teacher is like the candle, which lights others in consuming itself." Neither the moon nor the stars are shining. Robert or his brother will be here. Either Mary or Eliza must sing. "When the million applaud, seriously ask yourself what harm you have done." "I know that my Redeemer liveth." Take heed lest ye fall. He can neither stand nor walk. Truth is powerful and will prevail. "If you have nothing to say, say nothing." Where saints immortal dwell, is a land of pure delight. The hour for singing has arrived, and we must assemble in the chapel. The storm is not yet over, but we must resume our journey, now that the meal is finished. When wicked men revile you, be not disturbed by their unjust sayings. Though they mock me, yet will I speak

the truth unto them. Will you or will you not listen to me? The laws must and shall be obeyed, or the country will go to ruin. "Blest be the tie that binds our hearts in christian love." "Blessed are the pure in heart, for they shall see God."

"Oft in the stilly night,
Ere slumber's chain hath bound me,
Fond mem'ry brings the light
Of other days around me."

§ 29. SUBORDINATE ELEMENTS.

Interjections and Exclamations.

Remark. We have now treated, in general terms, of all the parts of speech, principal and subordinate, which are necessary to the expression of thought; but there is yet another class of words or signs to be examined; which are merely used to express emotion or feeling. These, being mere exclamations, have no logical or grammatical connection with propositions or sentences, and are therefore termed *Interjections*, or words thrown in.

1. **Interjections** are words or phrases used to express strong emotion or feeling: as, Oh! Alas! Ah! Ah me! Pshaw! Avaunt! Hurrah!

Remark 2. The word, *interjection*, is derived from the Latin word, *interjectio*, and means, *that which is thrown in or between*.

2. **Interjectional phrases** are usually composed, wholly or in part, of other words than regular interjections: as, Away with melancholy! O, Liberty! Poor me!

Remark 3. Sometimes, entire propositions of either of the forms described in section twenty-one (§ 21), are used as interjections. In such case, they are called *exclamatory sentences*.

3. An **exclamatory proposition or sentence** is one that is used to express strong emotion or feel-

ing: as, Alas, poor Tray is dead! How can I give thee up? Away, thou fiend!

4. The following list embraces most of the interjections in common use:

Expressing *joy*; eigh! hey! io!—*Sorrow*; oh! ah! hoo! alas! alack! lackaday! welladay!—*Wonder*; heigh! ha! strange! indeed!—*Desire*; O!—*Praise*; well-done! good! bravo!—*Surprise*; whew! hoity-toity! hoida! zounds! what!—*Pain* or *Fear*; oh! ooh! ah! eh! O dear!—*Contempt*; fudge! pugh! poh! pshaw! pish! tush! tut! humph!—*Aversion*; foh! faugh! fie! foy!—*Expulsion*; out! off! shoo! whew! begone! avaunt!—*Calling*; ho! soho! what-ho! hollo! holla! hallo! halloo! hoy! ahoy!—*Exhultation*; ah! aha! huzza! hey! heyday! hurrah!—*Laughter*; ha, ha, ha! he, he, he! te-hee, te-hee!—*Greeting*; welcome! hail! all-hail!—*Calling Attention*; ho! lo! law! look! see! behold!—*Call to Silence*; hush! list! whist! mum!—*Dread* or *horror*; oh! ha! hah! what!—*Langor*; heigh-ho! heigh-ho-hum!—*Call to stop*; hold! stop! avast! whoh!—*Parting Salutation*; farewell! adieu! good-by! good-day!—*Detection*; oho! aha! ay-ay!—*Inquiry*; eh? ha? hey? how-now?

Oral Exercise.

1. What are interjections?
2. Do they express thought?
3. What do they express?
4. Of what are interjectional phrases usually composed?
5. What does an exclamatory sentence express?
6. What are some of the emotions or feelings expressed by interjections and exclamatory sentences?

Written Exercise.

Rule 8. The interjection, *O*, should always be a capital letter.

Rule 9. Every exclamatory word, phrase or sentence, excepting those which denote interrogation, should be terminated with an exclamation point. (!)

Terminate each of the following expressions with an appropriate punctuation mark, taking care to distinguish declarative, interrogative and imperative sentences from those which are exclamatory:

Begone, dull care Would you like to go with my friend

He said I might do so Ah me, when will this trouble end
 "Alas, poor Yorick" "Why, oh why, my heart, this sadness"
 Why will you not return with me Be thou my friend and
 nothing shall disturb me "Virtue is her own reward" "O, for
 a lodge in some vast wilderness" "Come, O, come with me"
 "Good-by, sweet-heart, good-by" "O, bear me to some lonely
 cell" "Take heed, lest thou dash thy foot against a stone"
 Many are the snares that beset the paths of the young Ah,
 the treasure Welladay "Come to my mountain home"

§ 30. ADJECTIVES AS PRONOUNS.

Remark 1. Most of the limiting, and many of the descriptive adjectives are often employed as substitutes for the nouns whose signification they modify. Limiting adjectives, when so employed are usually called *adjective pronouns*, while descriptive adjectives, under similar circumstances, are termed, *adjectives used as nouns*. Now, as all words used as substitutes for nouns properly belong to the class called pronouns, there seems to be no reason why descriptive, as well as limiting adjectives, should not be so classed, when employed as explained. Therefore, all adjectives used as substitutes for nouns will, in this work, be classed as adjective pronouns.

1. An **adjective** pronoun is an adjective used as the substitute for a noun.

2. A **limiting** adjective pronoun is a limiting adjective used as a noun: as, *This* (book) is my book, and *that* (book) is yours. *Each* (person) received his share of the spoils. *Many* are called but *few* are chosen.

3. A **descriptive** adjective pronoun is a descriptive adjective used as a noun: as, The *young* and the *old* were treated alike. He sendeth rain on the *just* and *unjust*.

4. The limiting adjective, *one*, is sometimes used as an alternative personal pronoun of the *third*

person, and should be classed as such, when thus employed : as, *one* always feels happy, in the consciousness of having done a kind act. *Ones* friends are often blind to *ones* faults. It grieveth *one* sorely to lose a much loved friend. Be kind to the little *ones*.

Oral Exercise.

1. How are adjectives, both limiting and descriptive, often used?
2. What are limiting adjectives called, when so used?
3. What are descriptive adjectives usually termed, when so used?
4. Why should both classes of adjectives be treated alike, when used as substitutes for nouns?
5. What is an adjective pronoun?
6. How is the limiting adjective, *one*, sometimes employed?
7. How should it be classed, when thus employed?
8. When used as explained, does *one*, stand for any particular person, or for persons in general?
9. Point out the adjective pronouns in the following expressions, and say for what each one stands:

To one he gave money, and to the other, thanks. These are for you, and those, for your sister. "Some love to roam over the dark sea foam, but a life in the woods for me." Several of our class were absent. All should be kind, one to another. Either of you may come, but neither shall be preferred. Come, one and all, to the feast. The good and the bad shall receive their just reward. Many are the devices of the wicked. The deaf and the blind are, alike with the hearing and the seeing, entitled to education as wards of the State. Who, better than the afflicted, can sympathize with the sorrowing ones of earth. One should not be afraid to do ones duty. "It is not good for one to be alone." Give the praise to the one that merits it. "Where two or three are gathered together in my name, there am I in the midst of them."

Written Exercise.

1. Write five sentences containing limiting adjectives used as pronouns.
2. Write five, with descriptive adjectives used as pronouns.
3. Write five, with the adjective, *one*, used as a personal pronoun.

§ 31. RELATIVES.

Pronouns, Adjectives and Adverbs.

1. Relatives are *conjunctive* words which relate to objects, either understood, or designated by preceding nouns, pronouns or equivalents of nouns, termed their *antecedents*: They connect subordinate propositions with principal ones, as in the following examples: (1) The man *whom* you saw, is my father. (2) The house *which* stands on the hill, is a church. (3) I gave (to) him *what* (thing) he desired. (4) The house *where* you were born has been sold.

(a.) In example (1), the relative, *whom*, is a pronoun, standing for and relating to *man* as its antecedent, and connecting the subordinate proposition, *you saw whom*, (the word *whom* is the object of the transitive verb *saw*) with the principal one, *The man is my father*.

(b.) In example (2), the relative, *which*, is also a pronoun, standing for and relating to *house* as its antecedent, and connecting the subordinate proposition, *which stands on the hill*, with the principal one, *the house is a church*. Here, the relative is also the subject of the subordinate proposition, a construction which frequently occurs.

(c.) In example (3), the relative, *what*, is a limiting adjective used as a noun, and therefore an adjective pronoun, standing for and relating to some object understood. It is equivalent in this example to *that* or *the thing which*, and serves both as the object of the transitive verb, *gave*, and the relative connecting the subordinate proposition, *he desired what*, with the principal one, *I gave him what*. It will be

observed that, *what*, because of its composite character, belongs to both of the propositions which it connects. If we resolve it into its constituent elements, *that* or *the thing*, and *which*, one of these, *that* or *the thing*, becomes the object of the principal clause, and the other, *which*, the object of the subordinate clause.

(d.) In example (4), the relative, *where*, is an adverbial conjunction relating to *house*, and connecting the subordinate proposition, *you were born where*, with the principal one, *the house has been sold*.

Remark 1: Observe that, in every case, the relative is an element, principal or subordinate, of the *subordinate* proposition.

2. From the foregoing examples and explanations, it will be seen that relatives may be either *pronouns*, *limiting adjectives* or *adverbs*.

3. A relative **pronoun**, *proper*, is a pronoun which stands for and relates to some object previously mentioned or understood, termed its antecedent: as, The book *which* you lent me is lost. *Whoever* lies will steal.

Remark 2. Relative adjectives are limiting adjectives used as nouns; that is limiting adjective pronouns: hence they should be termed, *relative adjective pronouns*.

4. A relative **adjective** pronoun is a limiting adjective pronoun used as a relative: as, He called for *what* was promised him.

5. A relative **adverb** is an adverb used to connect a subordinate proposition with a principal one: as, The time *when* you and I were friends, is past.

6. Relative pronouns are either *simple* or *composite*.

7. A **simple** relative pronoun is one that relates to an *expressed* antecedent, as in examples (1) and (2) under paragraph, *one*.

8. The simple relatives are:—

(a.) **Who, whose** and **whom**—relating to persons: as, My friend *who* was sick, has recovered. The lady *whose* house you visited, has gone to Europe. The gentleman *whom* you admired, is a bachelor.

Remark 3. *Whose* is sometimes applied to things in order to avoid circumlocution: as, the city *whose* streets are paved with gold, for, the city, *the streets of which* are paved with gold.

(b.) **Which**—relating to things: as, The apples *which* you gave me, were delicious.

(c.) **That**—relating to either persons or things: as, The scholar *that* perseveres in study, must succeed. The branch *that* you are studying is grammar.

(d.) **As**—relating to either persons or things, and used after the words, *many, such* and *same*: as, We have as many pupils *as* can be accommodated. They are taught such studies *as* are deemed useful. Our methods of instruction are the same *as* are used in other schools of the kind.

Exercise 1. Point out the relative pronouns and the antecedents to which they relate, in the following expressions:

Happy is the man, that findeth wisdom. Thomas is the person, whom you saw. This gentleman is he, who was my teacher. Mary is the girl, whose mother is a pianist. That church is the building, of which I spoke. "Few and precious are the words, which the lips of Wisdom utter:" "They be drops of the crystal dew, which the wings of seraphs scatter." Happy is he, whose trust is in the Lord.

9. A **composite** relative pronoun is one that contains both a relative and its antecedents, or relates to an *unexpressed* antecedent: as example (3) under paragraph one.

10. The composite relative pronouns are (1) simple relatives used as composite, with antecedents understood; (2) simple relatives with *so*, *ever* and *soever* affixed to them; and (3) the relative adjective pronouns, *which* and *what*, with and without the suffixes, *so*, *ever* and *soever*. They are:

(a.) **Who**—equivalent to *he* or *the one* who: as, "Who loves a garden loves a greenhouse, too."

(b.) **Whose**—equivalent to *he*, *him* or *the one* whose: as, *Whose* life is spent in sin, will reap the reward he merits. To *whose* industry most deserves it, the prize shall be given.

(c.) **Whom**—equivalent to *him* or *the one* whom: as, "Whom the gods would destroy, they first make mad."

(d.) **Which**—equivalent to *that* or *the one* which: as, Take *which* you like.

(e.) **That**—equivalent to *that* or *the thing* that: as, Give me *that* is my own.

(f.) **What**—equivalent to *that* or *the thing* which: as, I know *what* he is.

(g.) **Whoever, whoso, whosoever**—equivalent to *he* or *any one* who: as, *Whoever* would succeed, must persevere.

(h.) **Whosoever**—equivalent to *he* or *any one* whose: as, *Whosoever* house this is, will be alarmed; or, *Whose* house *soever*, etc.

(i.) **Whomsoever**—equivalent to *him* or *any one* whom: as, Leave the letter with *whomsoever* you may see.

(j.) **Whichever, whichever**—equivalent to *that* or *either one* which or that: as, There are two

roads running in the same direction ; *Whichever* you take will lead you to the city.

(*k.*) **Whatever, whatso, whatsoever** — equivalent to *that* or *any thing* which or that : as, Take *whatever* you choose. "*Whatso* the heaven in his wide vault contains." (Spenser.)

Remark 4. *Whoever* etc., may sometimes be construed as simple relatives: as in the following passage: "Whosoever will, let him take of the water of life freely;" equal to, Let him who will, take etc. If we construe the relative as composite in this and similar cases, we have two antecedents to the simple relative, *who*, thus: Let him, *any one who* will take etc. In such case, *any one who will*, becomes appositive to *him*: that is, it is used to *explain* who is meant by *him*: so, in sentences like the following: The man, *whoever he is*, must be wealthy.

Note. All relatives with the adverbial suffixes, *so, ever* and *soever*, are usually called *compound* relatives. The term is here rejected, because, being composed of dissimilar elements, such words can not properly be called *compounds*. The suffixes referred to are adverbs, and in no sense pronominal in their nature. Their principal effect upon the pronouns to which they are affixed, is to render them emphatic. *What*, is always composite without them, and all of the simple relatives, excepting *as*, are susceptible of a similar construction, as heretofore explained.

Remark 5. *Which* and *what*, with or without their adverbial suffixes, are, limiting adjectives, when the words to which they refer are expressed: as, Who will tell me what *way* I shall go? *Whichever way* I turn, naught but chaos meets my view.

Exercise 2.

(*a.*) Explain the examples given under paragraph *ten*, by substituting the equivalents of the composite relatives, and reading them as amended, thus: Who loves a garden loves a greenhouse too. = *He* who loves a garden loves a greenhouse too.

Remark 6: In performing this, and the following exercise, the pupil need not be confined to the *singular* words given as

equivalents of the relatives, but may use plurals in their stead, at discretion, thus: For *he, him, person, etc.*, he may say, *they, them, persons, etc.*

(b.) Explain the following examples, in like manner with those referred to in the preceding exercise, (a):

"Who pants for glory, finds but short repose." "Who steals my purse, steals trash." "Whom the Lord loveth, he chasteneth." "Who would be free, themselves must strike the blow." Whosoever will, may come. I informed my father of what you said. Whoso loveth himself more than me, is not worthy of me. Whatever is given to the poor, is laid up in heaven. "Whatsoever thy hands find to do, do with thy might." "What is right, is right." "What is to be, will be." Salute in my name, whomsoever you meet by the way. "What man has done, man can do."

11. Relative **adverbs** are either *simple* or *compound*: as, When, whenever.

12. Some of the **simple** relative adverbs are:

(a.) **When**—relating to some definite time: as, We will go, *when* you are ready.

(b.) **While**—relating to time being: as, "*While* I was musing, the fire burned."

(c.) **Where**—relating to some definite place: as, "Tell me *where* grows the fragrant rose."

(d.) **Whither**—same as *where*: as, "*Whither* I go, ye can not come."

(e.) **Whence**—same as *where*: as, I do not know, *whence* he came.

(f.) **Why**—relating to some definite cause: as, Tell me *why* you left.

(g.) **How**—relating to definite manner or degree: as, I will tell you *how* I did it. I do not know *how* sick he was.

13. Some of the **compound** relative adverbs are :

(a.) **Whenever, whensoever**—relating to some indefinite time : as, Go, *whenever* you please.

(b.) **Wherever, wheresoever**—relating to some indefinite place : as, You may go, *wheresoever* you please.

(c.) **Whithersoever**—same as *wherever* : as, You may go, *whithersoever* you please.

(d.) **Whenceever, whencesoever**—same as *wherever* : as, "Any idea, *whencesoever* you have it."

(e.) **However, howso, howsoever**—relating to indefinite manner or degree : as, *However* he may have done it, I care not. *How* much *soever* you may care, is immaterial to me.

14. Every relative adverb is equivalent to two phrases, each containing a preposition and its sequent; one of which sequents is a relative pronoun, and the other an antecedent of the same, thus : Tell me *when* I shall go;=Tell me *of the time at which* I shall go.

Exercise 3.

(a.) Substitute for the relative adverbs in the examples under paragraphs *twelve* and *thirteen*, their equivalent phrases, and read them as amended.

(b.) Do the same with the following :

"Where content is, there is a feast." "Where one is wise, two are happy." "Where reason rules, appetite obeys." "Where the bee sucks honey, the spider sucks poison." "Where the will is ready, the feet are light." "Wherever we meet misery, we owe pity." "While there is life, there is hope." "While the grass grows, the steed starves." "When a man grows angry, his reason rides out." "When either side grows warm with argument, the

wisest man gives over first." "When the iron is hot, it's time to strike." While you trust to the dog, the wolf slips into the sheep-fold. "For, under God, we are determined that, wheresoever, whensoever, or howsoever, we shall be called to make our exit, we will die freemen." (Josiah Quincy.)

Oral Exercise.

1. What are relatives?
 2. What classes of words are used as relatives?
 3. What is a relative pronoun, *proper*?
 4. What is a relative adjective pronoun?
 5. What is a relative adverb?
 6. What is the antecedent of a relative adverb?
- Ans.* The subordinate proposition to which it refers.
7. Into what two classes are relative pronouns divided?
 8. What is a simple relative pronoun?
 9. Name the simple relative pronouns, and say to what each one relates.

10. What is a composite relative pronoun?

11. What classes of words are used as composite relative pronouns?

12. Name the composite relative pronouns, and say to what each one is equivalent.

13. How may *whoever*, *whoso* and *whosoever* sometimes be construed?

Give examples.

14. When such examples are construed as double relatives, what do we have?

15. In such case, what does the subordinate proposition become?

16. What does the word, *appositive*, mean, as here employed?

Ans. Used to explain, who or what is meant by the antecedent.

17. When are *which* and *what*, with or without their adverbial suffixes, limiting adjectives?

Give examples.

18. Relative adverbs are of what two forms?

19. Name the simple relative adverbs cited under paragraph *twelve* of this section, and say to what each one relates.

20. Name the compound relative adverbs cited under paragraph *thirteen*, and say to what each one relates.

21. To what is every relative adverb equivalent?

22. Turn to the examples, in exercises *one* and *two* of this section, and tell which of the relatives are pronouns *proper*, and which, *adjective* pronouns.

§ 32. INTERROGATIVES.

Pronouns, Adjectives and Adverbs.

1. Interrogatives are *pronouns*, *adjectives* and *adverbs* used in asking questions: as, *Who* are you? *What* books are those? *How* did they come here?

2. An interrogative **pronoun** is a relative pronoun used in asking a question: as, *Whom* are you going to see? *What* did the man say to you?

3. An interrogative pronoun may be either a pronoun *proper*, as, *who*, or a limiting adjective pronoun, as, *what*.

4. An interrogative **adjective** is a limiting adjective used in asking a question: as, *Which* man is your brother? *What* boy is that?

5. An interrogative **adverb** is a relative adverb used in asking a question: as, *When* did you come? *How* long will you stay?

6. The interrogative pronouns are:

(a.) **Who**, **whose** and **whom**—relating to persons: as, *Who* is that man? *Whose* horse is he driving? From *whom* did he get it?

(b.) **Which** and **what**—relating to either persons or things: as, *Which* of the books have you? *What* is that man?

7. The interrogative adjectives are :

Which and **what**—relating to either persons or things: as, *Which* boy is that? *What* book is he studying?

8. The interrogative adverbs are :

(a.) **When**—relating to time: as, *When* will you go?

(b.) **Where**, **whither** and **whence**—relating to place: as, *Where* did you go? *Whither* will you go? *Whence* did you come?

(c.) **Why** and **wherefore**—relating to cause or reason: as, *Why* will you not stay? *Wherefore* did you come?

(d.) **How**—relating to manner or degree: as, *How* does the boy read? *How* old is he?

Oral Exercise.

1. What are interrogatives?
2. What is an interrogative pronoun?
3. Are interrogative pronouns always pronouns *proper*?
4. What is an interrogative adjective?
5. What is an interrogative adverb?
6. Name the interrogative pronouns, and say to what each relates.
7. What does the pronoun, *whose*, denote?
8. Name the interrogative adjectives, and say to what they relate.
9. Name the interrogative adverbs, and say to what each relates.
10. Point out the interrogatives in the following expressions, telling which are pronouns, *proper*; which, adjective pronouns; which, adjectives; and which, adverbs:
 "What exile, from himself can flee?" "And, after all, what is a lie?" "Where shall a man have a worse friend than he brings from home?" "Where shall the ox go, but he must

labor?" "Who doth sing so merry a note, as he that can not change a groat?" "Whose dog art thou?" Which road did you take? "What avails it me, to draw one foot out of the mud, and stick the other in?" "What can the virtues of our ancestors profit us, if we do not imitate them?" Whither shall I fly? "Why should a rich man steal?"

"Wind of the winter night, whence comest thou,
And whither, O! whither art wandering now?"

§ 33. DUAL-SENSE VERBS.

Do, Be, Have and Will.

1. Hitherto we have considered the words, *do*, *be*, *have* and *will*, with their variations, as asserting verbs only. But they are likewise used as attributive and composite verbs.

2. As *asserting* verbs, the words in question are without other meaning than that of mere affirmation; but as *attributive* and *composite* verbs, they possess distinctive significations.

3. **Do**, as an attributive or a composite verb, signifies action in a general sense; also, behavior, state of health, etc.: as, I will *do* the work for you. The men *did* (did do) well as soldiers. How do you *do* this morning?

4. **Be**, as an attributive or a composite verb, signifies existence: as, "To *be*, or not to *be*; that is the question." Before Abraham *was* (did *be* or *exist*), I *am* (do *be* or *exist*). The fool hath said in his heart, there *is* (does *exist*) no God. Whatever *is* (*exists*), is right.

Remark 1. In the last example, the first *is* is a *composite* verb, equivalent to *does be* or *exist*; and the second, an *asserting*

verb, or copula, affirming the predicate, *right*, and joining it to the subjective clause *whatever is*.

Note 1. In a future section, it will be explained, that propositions may be used as elements of other propositions, as in the example just referred to. Proposition, when so employed, are called *clauses*.

5. **Have**, as an attributive or a composite verb, denotes possession, obligation, etc.: as, We will *have* a new carriage to-morrow. Our neighbors *had* (did *have*) a party last evening. I will *have* to leave town to-morrow. What would you *have* me (to) do?

6. **Will**, as an attributive or a composite verb, signifies volition, bequest, desire, etc.: as, Two things he *willeth* (doth *will*). My friend will *will* his property to the church. Stephen Girard *willed* (did *will*) a large sum to the orphans of Philadelphia. Caleb said unto her, what *wilt* (*willest* or *dost will*) thou?

Remark 2. In the second example, the first *will* is an *asserting* verb, and the second, an *attributive* verb.

Remark 3. The attributive and composite forms of these dual sense-verbs, that is, their predicate forms, differ but little from their asserting or copulative forms. For this reason, it will sometimes require a careful examination, to decide whether the verbs are used as predicate, or as copulative verbs. Again, the perfect participle of *have* (*had*) is similar in form to that of the verb, in several uses of the latter; and here also, care will be required, in order to avoid misconstruction.

Note 2. In *Section 22, Note 2*, reasons were given for classing certain words as adjectives, when used as predicates of propositions; and in *Note 3* of the same *Section*, it was stated, that the prevalent, erroneous classification of these words is undoubtedly due to the confounding of the two senses of the verb, *to be*. As evidence of the fact, that the *asserting* sense of the verb in question is not sufficiently distinguished by the world at large, attention is called to the following extract from a work of the highest authority in Logical Science:

"It is of the utmost importance that there should be no indistinctness in our conception of the nature and office of the copula; for confused no-

tions respecting it are among the causes which have spread mysticism over the field of logic, and perverted its speculations into logomachies.

It is apt to be supposed that the copula is much more than a mere sign of predication; that it also signifies *existence*. In the proposition, *Socrates is just*, it may seem to be implied not only that the quality *just* can be affirmed of Socrates, but moreover that Socrates *is*, that is to say *exists*. This, however, only shows that there is an ambiguity in the word *is*, a word which not only performs the function of the copula in affirmations, but has also a meaning of its own, in virtue of which it may itself be made the predicate of a proposition. That the employment of it as a copula does not necessarily include the affirmation of existence, appears from such a proposition as this: A centaur is a fiction of the poets; where it can not possibly be implied that a centaur exists, since the proposition itself expressly asserts that the thing has no real existence.

"Many volumes might be filled with the frivolous speculations concerning the nature of Being, which have arisen from overlooking the double meaning of the word *to be*; from supposing that when it signifies *to exist*, and when it signifies *to be* some specified thing, as to *be* a man, to *be* Socrates, to *be* seen or spoken of, to *be* a phantom, even to *be* a nonentity, it must still, at bottom, answer to the same idea; and that a meaning must be found for it which shall suit all these cases. The fog which rose from this narrow spot diffused itself at an early period over the whole surface of metaphysics." "System of Logic" by John Stuart Mill, p 53.

Were Grammarians more mindful of the distinction under consideration, learners would find in their works fewer inconsistencies to confuse and perplex them. For example, they would not be told, that in such expressions as, *The man is absent, but his house is yonder*, the words, *absent* and *yonder*, are *adverbs*, modifying the sense of the verb, *is*; while in such as this, *Yonder house is the absent man's house*, the same words are *adjectives*, limiting the signification of the nouns, *man* and *house*, respectively. The obvious truth is, that they are adjectives in both cases; the difference being that, in the one case, the attributes of "place or situation," are predicated, while in the other they are assumed. See Section 23, ¶ 1. And again, they would not be told, that in such expressions as, *The storm is ended, and my fears are over*, the word, *ended*, is a participle, possessing the nature of an *adjective*, and relating to the noun, *storm*, while the word, *over*, is an *adverb*, modifying the sense of the verb, *are*. Do the fears exist after they are *over*, or ended, any more than the storm exists after it is ended? Is it not evident, that both of these words, *ended* and *over*, are attributive in their use, and that they relate alike to their respective subjects? We must not lose sight of the fundamental and almost axiomatic truth, that whatever is predicated of a subject, is an attribute of that subject, let the word representing such attribute belong to whatsoever part of speech it may, as to its general use. Nor should we ignore the equally fundamental truth, that the use of a word in any given case, determines the class to which that word belongs in such case.

But, with regard to the particular words just adverted to, a simple reference to either of our standard dictionaries (Webster's and Worcester's)

will show, (1.) That the word, *absent*, and the same is true of *present*, has no *adverbial* signification; (2.) That the so-called adverbial signification of *yonder* is identical with its adjective signification; and (3.) That *over*, in the sense of *ended*, *past*, *discontinued*, and the like, is an adjective. Upon the subject of this class of words in general, Webster, under the word *over*, says: "*Over, out, off*, and similar adverbs, are often used in the predicate with the sense and force of adjectives, agreeing in this respect with the adverbs of place, *here, there, everywhere, nowhere*; as, the games were *over*; the play is *over*; the master was *out*; the cover was *off*; his hat is *off*." If this is true, why not call them adjectives in such cases, as advocated in Section 22 of this work?

What is true of the verb, *to be*, as above set forth, is equally true of the other three "dual-sense verbs," to a greater or less extent. For example, had the learned author of "Words and Their Uses" kept in view the asserting sense of the verbs, *have* and *will*, we would not have been treated in his famous chapter on "The Grammarless Tongue," to the following sample of questionable logic: he says concerning the sentence, *I have loved*: "The only real verb that we use in this instance is one that signifies possession. We say, I have—have what? possess what? Possession implies an object possessed; and in this case it is that completed action which is expressed in the abstract by the participle. *Loved* is here the object of the verb *have* as much as *money* would be in the sentence, "I have money." Again, he says in substance, that the verb, *will*, always expresses volition or determination, thus: The sentence, *I will go*, means *I will or determine to go*, *will* being a transitive verb, and *to go*, a verbal substantive, serving as its object. According to this logic, if one were to say of a man convicted of murder, He will be hung to-morrow, he would mean that the man wills or determines to be hung. Or, if one should say, That house will fall, he would mean that the house *wills* or *determines* to fall. Does the convicted man *will* to be hung, or the non-thinking house *will* to fall? This may all be very good "Latin" or "Saxon" logic, but it is certainly very poor English.

Oral Exercise.

1. How have the verbs, *do, be, have* and *will*, been hitherto considered in these lessons?
2. How else may they be used?
3. What signification have they as asserting verbs?
4. What is the signification of *do*, as an attributive verb?
5. What is the signification of *be*, as an attributive verb?
6. What is the signification of *have*, as an attributive verb?
7. What is the signification of *will*, as an attributive verb?
8. What are the progressive and perfect participles of *do, be, have*, and *will*?

Remark 4 The adverb, *there*, is sometimes used to introduce a proposition, without having any logical connection with it: as, *There* is no God. When thus used, the word is called an expletive, or redundant word. It is very often found in propositions where the verb, *be*, is used attributively.

9. Analyze the propositions in the following expressions, taking care to distinguish between the attributive and asserting senses of the four dual-sense verbs, and naming the particular class to which each word belongs.

MODEL.

The fool hath said in his heart, there is no God.

This expression contains two propositions, a *principal* and a *subordinate* one.

Fool is a noun, used as subject of the principal proposition; common; singular; alternative.

Said is an attributive participle, used as predicate; perfect: from the verb, *say*.

Hath is an asserting verb, used as copula.

The is a limiting adjective, belonging to the noun, *fool*.

Heart is a noun, used as sequent of the proposition, *in*; common; singular; neuter.

His is a possessive pronoun, used to limit the noun, *heart*; third person; singular; masculine.

In is a preposition, showing the relation between the noun, *heart*, and the participle, *said*.

God is a noun, used as subject of the subordinate proposition; proper; singular; masculine.

Is is a composite verb, used as predicate and copula: it is equivalent to *does be*.

No is a limiting adjective, belonging to the noun, *God*.

There is an expletive adverb, used to introduce the proposition, *no God is*.

"Had I the wings of a dove."

I is a personal pronoun, used as subject; first person; singular; alternative.

Had is a composite verb, used as predicate and copula: it is equivalent to *did have*.

"Be we men." What did you do with the book? How do you do? Where have you been? Why did you run? How did the man do the work? He did it very well. Did you help him? There was no time for it. There were many people there. Poor Tray is no more! The time was, when you and I were friends. "There is no rest for the wicked." "Many lands there are, where ignorance prevails." "Where there is life, there is hope." "'Tis home where ere the heart is." How can these things be? "God has always been, and he always will be." How many books have you? "My brother has none now, but he did have several." If I had had as many as you have, I would have taken good care of them. Alice has had a letter from her mother. What will you have of me? To whom did your uncle will his estate? Was it willed to his children? When will you go with me? I will that thou leavest me not. Wilt thou that I stay with thee? "Where nothing is, nothing can be had." "Where no fault is, there needs no pardon." "Where one is wise, two are happy." "Where passion is high, there reason is low." "Where there is a will, there is a way." "Where vice is, vengeance follows." "Where there is no love, all are faults." "There is a time for all things."

"For of all sad words of tongue or pen,

The saddest are these: It might have been."

10. Furnish five additional examples in which *do* is used as a predicate verb; five, in which *be* is so used; five, in which *have* is so used; and five, in which *will* is so used.

11. Analyze and explain the propositions furnished.

§ 34. WORDS WITH PHRASAL AND OTHER EQUIVALENTS.

1. A **phrase** is an expression containing two or more words without forming a proposition: as, *In the city; as well as; this place*.

2. Many of the words classed as adverbs, have

phrasal equivalents in some or all of their senses, thus:

(a) **Here**—this place; at, in, or to this place: as, *Here* (this place) is not the place for you. You should not be *here* (in this place). Why did you come *here* (to this place)?

(b) **There**—that place; at, in, or to that place: as, *There* (that place) is the right place for you. You should be *there* (in that place.) When will you go *there* (to that place)?

(c) **Where**—which or what place; at, in, or to which or what place: as, *Where* (what place) is the right place for me? *Where* (in which place) shall you be? *Where* (at what place) shall you stop?

(d) **Nowhere**—not in or to any place: as, The man is *nowhere* (not in any place) in this house. I am going *nowhere* (not to any place).

(e) **Hence**—from this place, time, cause, source, etc.: as, When will you go *hence* (from this place)? In a week *hence* (from this time) I shall be at my home. You are an idle fellow, and *hence* (from this cause) comes your poverty. "All other faces borrowed *hence* (from this source) their light and grace."

(f) **Thence**—from that place, time, cause, source etc.: as, "When you depart *thence* (from that place), shake off the dust of your feet." "There shall be no more, *thence* (from that time), an infant of days." "Not to sit idle with so great a gift useless, and *thence* (from that cause) ridiculous, about him." The lakes abound in fish, and the inhabitants derive *thence* (from that source) their chief article of food.

(g) **Whence**=from which or what place, cause, source, etc.: as, *Whence* (from what place) comest thou? *Whence* (from what cause) proceeds this devastating malady? “*Whence* (from what source) hath this man this wisdom?”

(h) **Hither**=To this place, end, point, etc.: as, Bring *hither* (to this place) those beautiful flowers. *Hither* (to this end) we are directing all our efforts. “*Hither* (to this point) we refer whatever belongs to the highest perfection of man.”

(i) **Thither**=To that place, end, point, etc.: as, The city is near; O! let me escape *thither* (to that place). His aim is to become a scholar, and *thither* (to that end) he devotes his energies. Inactivity of conscience is induced by disobedience; *thither* (to that point) ye are tending.

(j) **Whither**=to which or what place, point, etc.: as, *Whither* (to what place) shall I follow thee? *Whither* (to what point) does the argument lead?

(k) **Present**=in this place: as, He whom you seek is *present* (in this place.)

(l) **Absent**=from this or that place: as, I was *absent* (from that place) at the time mentioned by you.

(m) **Yonder**=at, in, or to that place: as, I will be *yonder* (at that place) in the evening. Your friend is *yonder* (in that place). Shall I go *yonder* (to that place) in the morning?

(n) **Now**=this time; at this time, etc.: as “*Now* (this time) is the accepted time.” Shall I recite my lesson *now* (at this time)?

(o) **Then**=that time; at that time, etc.: as, The

time for you to speak was *then* (that time). I was not prepared to speak *then* (at that time).

(*p*) **When**=Which or what time, etc.: as, He was here last week; since *when* (which time) I have heard nothing from him. *When* (at what time) shall we three meet again.

(*q*) **Hereafter**=after this time; in the future, etc.: as, *Hereafter* (after this time) we shall be alone. You must be more careful *hereafter* (in the future).

(*r*) **Thereafter**=after that time, etc.: as, The men were never heard of *thereafter* (after that time).

(*s*) **Heretofore**=before this time, etc.: as, *Heretofore* (before this time) my friend has enjoyed excellent health.

(*t*) **Theretofore**=before that time, etc.: as, We had not *theretofore* (before that time) experienced any trouble from the source referred to.

3. Besides the foregoing and similar words, whose *general* signification may be expressed by equivalent phrases, there are some others with *special* significations that may be expressed in the same way, or by single words belonging to different parts of speech: thus, The sun is *down* (set; below the horizon). The moon is *up* (risen; above the horizon). The captain is *below* (in the cabin). The mate is *aloft* (in the rigging). The passengers are *aft* (towards the stern). The rain is *over* (ended). Your time is *up* (completed). The flag is *up* (hoisted). The flag is *down* (lowered). The patient is *up* (out of bed). William is *down* (sick) with the rheumatism. What is *up* (about to happen)? Flour is *up* (high in price). The pupil is *late* (behind time). You are *early* (ahead of time).

4. As will be fully explained hereafter, the phrasal equivalent of any word may perform the same office as the word itself, and a proper application of this truth will often aid the pupil in determining the part of speech to which a word belongs when used abnormally, or at variance with its ordinary signification. For example, when the words, *here*, *there*, *where*, *now*, *then* and *when* may be substituted by the phrases, *this place*, *that place*, *which or what place*, *this time*, *that time* and *which or what time*, respectively, they are *abstract nouns*; for, as will readily be seen, they are used to designate certain places and periods of time. Again, when the words, *here*, *there* and *where*, are used as predicates, being equivalent to the phrases, *at this place*, *in that place*, etc., they are *adjectives*; for in such cases, they designate attributes of place, predicated of subjects.

5. According to a strict rule of construction, when the words, *up*, *down*, *over*, and the like, used as predicates, may be substituted by attributive participles, as in *paragraph* 3, they should be classed as participles; but since this part of speech partakes of the nature of adjectives, it will be found sufficiently correct to construe them as belonging to the class last mentioned.

Oral Exercise.

1. What is a proposition? (§ 20)
2. What are the essential elements of a proposition?
3. What does the subject represent?
4. What does the predicate represent?
5. What parts of speech may be used as subjects of propositions? (§ 22)

6. What parts of speech may be used as predicates of propositions?

7. What office is performed by adverbs?

8. Can an adverb, as such, ever be used as one of the essential elements of a proposition?

9. When an adverbial word is used as subject, with what part of speech must it necessarily be classed?

10. When an adverbial word is used as predicate, denoting identity, as, your place is *here* (this place), with what part of speech must it necessarily be classed?

11. When an adverbial word is used as predicate, denoting some attribute of the subject, with what part of speech must it necessarily be classed?

12. Explain the italicized words in all of the foregoing examples in this *Section*, by telling whether they are used as subjects, predicates, or otherwise, and naming the parts of speech to which they belong as there used.

13. Analyze the following propositions, and give the equivalents, whether phrases or single words, of such of the adverbial words as may be found to have equivalents:

MODEL.

An eternal now does ever last.

Now is an abstract noun, used as subject; singular; neuter: equivalent to *present time*.

Last is an attributive verb, used as predicate.

Does is an asserting verb, used as copula.

Ever is an adverb, modifying the copula, *does*.

Eternal is a descriptive adjective, belonging to the noun, *now*.

An is a limiting adjective &c.

The auspicious time was then.

Then is an abstract noun, used as predicate; singular; neuter: equivalent to *that time*.

When will James be here?

Here is an adjective of place, used as predicate: equivalent to *in this place*.

Will and **be** are asserting verbs, used as copula.

When is an adverb, used interrogatively, and modifying the copula, *will be*.

Our provisions are out.

Out is an adjective, used as predicate: equivalent to *exhausted*.

Robert was present, but his mother was absent. "See yonder cornfield where waves the rip'ning grain." My house is far from here. How far is it from there to New York? Who was in here? * I was in there,* but I am now elsewhere. Many of my friends were there. The season for fishing is over. Your time is not yet come. Doth my father yet live? My friend now resides in Philadelphia. When will he come to visit you? I have heretofore had dealings with that man. I will show you the things that shall be (exist) hereafter. The Lord will preserve us henceforth. "When my father and mother forsake me, then the Lord will take me up." "First go and be reconciled to thy brother, and then come and offer thy gift at the altar." Susan rose early. Thomas went late to school. "Here rests his head upon the lap of earth." "Wheresoever the carcass is, there shall the eagles be gathered together." "But yonder comes the powerful king of day." She could not find her book anywhere. My sleeping room is above. My office is below. Hither (ye faithful) haste with songs of triumph. They went thither to purchase corn. Let us arise and go hence. We went thence to Baltimore. Whence arises the misery of this present world? A sheep wandered off from the flock. My friends are off to Europe. The game is up. The boys ran up the stairs. The moon went down early. Where is my hat? It is not here. When shall you go there? From now until then I shall remain here. "Now's the day and now's the hour." Since when have you been studying grammar? When is my time to sing? Where shall I sit?

"A little nonsense, now and then,
Is relished by the best of men."

*Adjective phrase used as predicate—See Section 36.

§ 35. IRREGULAR USES OF WORDS.

1. Though the various words of the language have, according to their ordinary use, been classified under different heads called parts of speech, yet many of them are used independently of this general classification, and made to serve in other ranks than those to which they naturally belong. Some of these irregular uses will now be considered.

2. Nouns are sometimes used—

(a) As *adjectives*, thus: *Spring* flowers are beautiful. That *stone* structure is a *church* edifice. This is a ten *horse-power* engine. Have you a two-foot rule. (§ 23).

(b) As *verbs*, thus: Fruit trees *blossom* in the spring. The miller *bagged* his grain. The merchant *ships* his goods to foreign countries. The gardner *pots* his flowers in autumn.

(c) As *adverbs*, thus: The street is a *mile* long. The book is worth a *dollar*. The man traveled *north*. Christmas will come *to-morrow*. James is like *John*. The traveler was *leg* weary and *foot* sore.

Remark 1. Most nouns used as adjectives or adverbs, may be construed as sequent nouns with their prepositional words or phrases understood, thus: Flowers *of* spring are beautiful. That structure *of* stone is an edifice *for* a church. This engine is the power *of* ten horses. The street is long *to the extent* of a mile. The book is worth (valuable) *to the amount* of a dollar. The man traveled *towards* the north. Christmas will come *on* to-morrow. James is like *to* John. Were the prepositional elements expressed, as just shown, they, with their sequents, would form what are called preposi-

tional adjuncts; and these, as will be shown hereafter, are construed as adjective and adverbial elements. Such being the case, the nouns in question are modifying elements even without the prepositional prefixes, which, if inserted, would weaken rather than strengthen the expressions. Strictly speaking, the numeral and other adjectives accompanying nouns used as explained, become adverbs; but it is deemed best to construe them as adjectives, limiting the nouns in their capacity as such.

Exercise 1.

Analyze the examples given in the preceding paragraph, except those contained in the *Remark*.

3. Pronouns are sometimes used—

(a) As *substitutes for propositions*, thus: They told me *that* your brother is going to school. *It* is unfortunate, *that* you were absent. I tell thee *what*, corporal, I could tear her. *What*, though all the world forsake me.

Remark 2. In the first example, *that*, though usually construed as a conjunction in such cases, represents the second clause of the sentence. In the second example, *it* and *that*, both stand as substitutes for the same clause—*you were absent*. In the third example, *what* stands for the clause—*I could tear her*. In the fourth example, *what* stands for some unexpressed proposition, as *what matters it*.

(b) As *limiting adjectives*, thus: May I have *that* book? *Which* book? You may take *what* book you please.

(c) As *verbs*, thus: He *thee-d* and *thou-d* me, as though I had been a Quaker.

(d) As *adverbs*, thus: *What* happy children. *What* brave souls. John is like *me*.

(e) As *connectives*, thus: I am confident *that* he is right. (*Section 28*).

Exercise 2.

Analyze the examples given in the preceding paragraph.

4. **Adjectives** are sometimes used—

(a) As *nouns*, thus: They were counted by *two's* and *three's*. There were six *dozens*. He lost his *all*. The little *ones* were happy.

(b) As *pronouns*. See Section 30.

(c) As *substitutes for propositions*, thus: I am going to leave you, but *this* is not from choice. I would rather stay, if *that* were possible. I must visit my father, *which* is the reason for my going.

(d) As *verbs*, thus: The man *bared* his head as he entered the room. We *doubled* our earnings, and thereby *bettered* our condition.

(e) As *adverbs*, thus: The man saw *double*. The lady sang *loud*. With face *all* pale, she entered the room. He knew *full* well, that I was his friend. *The* more I see him, *the* better I like him.

Exercise 3.

Analyze the examples given in the preceding paragraph.

5. **Attributive verbs** are sometimes used—

(a) As *nouns*, thus: The men were on a *strike*. John made a good *hit*. That was a bad *go*. The *display* was grand.

(b) As *adjectives*, thus: A *go*-cart; a *draw*-bridge; a *make* shift; a *play*-house; a *know*-nothing.

Remark 3. Verbs used adjectively are generally joined by hyphens to the nouns which they describe, thus forming what are called composite or compound nouns, thus: a *go*-cart, *draw*-bridge, *make*-shift, &c.

(c) As *prepositions*, thus: *Save* his faithful dog, he had no companion. All on board were lost *except* the captain.

Exercise 4.

Analyze the examples given in the preceding paragraph.

6. Attributive participles are sometimes used—

(a) As *nouns*, thus: *Drawing* is a useful accomplishment. Heaven is the abode of the *blessed*.

(b) As *adjectives*, thus: *Skating* rinks are becoming quite common. Diamonds are *crystalized* carbon.

(c) As *prepositions*, thus: It rained *during* the day. All had left *excepting* him. He remained, *notwithstanding* the rain. Your conduct is *past* endurance.

(d) As *conjunctions*, thus: John is a good student, *notwithstanding* his health is bad. James will succeed, *provided* he is not too indolent.

Exercise 5.

Analyze the examples given in the preceding paragraph.

7. Adverbs are sometimes used—

(a) As *nouns*, thus: The *how* and *why*, I will tell you hereafter. *Now* is the proper time. *Then* was the time you should have gone. *Here* is the place for you. (Section 34).

(b) As *substitutes for phrases*, thus: *Now*=this time, or at this time. (Section 34).

(c) As *substitutes for propositions*, thus: I learned that Charles is going to Europe, but can not now remember who told me *so* (that).

(d) As *adjectives*, thus: The *hither* or *thither* house; the *off* or *near* horse; the *then* president; a *kindly* face; a *cowardly* act; my brother is *poorly* this morning. The storm is *over*. My *only* son is *off* for Europe. Is it *so* (true), that John was here? (*Section 22, Note 2; Section 33, Note 2; and, Section 34.*)

Remark 5. So, in the last example relates not to any particular word, but to the proposition, *John was here*— Is what so?

(e) As *verbs*, thus: The man *slowed* his engine as we neared the station. *Down*, Carlo, you will soil my clothes.

(f) As *connectives*, (See § 28.)

Exercise 6.

Analyze the examples given in the preceding paragraph.

8. **Prepositions** are sometimes used—

(a) As *nouns*, thus: We hunted him through all the *ins* and *outs* (nooks and corners) of the garden. The *ins* [persons in office] are jubilant over the election; but the *outs* are despondent. The *ups* and *downs* of life should be borne with equanimity.

(b) As *adjectives*, thus: An *out* house; a *by* path; a *through* train; the boys are *in* (ready) for a frolic. Is the gentleman of the house *in*? No, he is *out* at this time. He is *in* (intimate) with the Smiths just now.

Remark 6. Very frequently, prepositions used as adjectives are joined by hyphens to the nouns which they qualify, thus forming composite nouns, thus: *out-house*, *by-path*.

(c) As verbs, thus: *Out*, (go from my sight) ye fiends. *Up* to the Alps lads, the day is before you. “*Up* boys and at them.”

(d) As *participles*, thus: Mary is *out* (offended) with her sister. Sarah is *at* (doing) her work. I am *about* (attending to) my business. What are you *about* (doing)? Something is *up* (transpiring). What are you *up* to=What are you doing; or, intending to do? The game is *up* (finished or frustrated).

(e) As *adverbs*, thus: The lady has gone *out*, but will soon come *in*. She went *down* to the Post Office.

(f) As *conjunctions*, See § 28.

Exercise 7.

Analyze the examples given in the preceding paragraph.

9. **Conjunctions** are sometimes used—

(a) As *nouns*, thus: Give me a plain statement without any of your *ifs* or *buts*.

(b) As *relative pronouns*, thus: We have as many books *as* are necessary. We have more books *than* are necessary. We have as many books *as* we want. We have more books *than* we want.

(c) As *adverbs*, thus: I did *but* (merely) touch it, and it fell. There were *but* (only) ten persons in the room.

(d) As *prepositions*, thus: Is she as tall *as* me? —*Shakespeare*. She suffers hourly more *than* me. —*Swift*. The nations not so blessed *as* thee.—*Thomson*. She was neither better nor wiser *than* you or me.—*Thackeray*. Benjamin Franklin, *than*

whom no one was more esteemed as a philosopher, was a native of New England. There was no one in the house *but* (beside) me. All were made prisoners *but* (except) the captain, who succeeded in effecting his escape.

Remark 7. Though supported, inadvertantly no doubt, by the example of some illustrious writers, the prepositional use of *as* and *than*, as in the sentences just cited, can not be justified, either in the light of correct Grammatical principles, or by well established usage. But it was thought best, nevertheless, to insert the foregoing examples for the purpose of showing that the conjunctions in question are sometimes used as prepositions. The expressions would be more correct, if the pronouns, *I*, *thou* and *who*, were substituted for *me*, *thee* and *whom*, respectively. *Whom*, in the fifth example, would be Grammatical, however, did the sentence read thus: Benjamin Franklin, than whom the world esteemed no one more as a philosopher, was a native of New England. An explanation of the principle involved in these corrections, will be found in a future section, under the rule for the case-forms of nouns and pronouns, used in comparison. It must be borne in mind, however, that, when the words in question are used as prepositions, they must be so construed in analysis.

Remark 8. Many Grammarians object to the prepositional use of *but*, as in the last two examples of *paragraph 9*, preferring to consider it a conjunction in all such cases. Their explanation of the matter is, that the word following *but*, as *me* or *captain* in the examples referred to, should be considered as the subject of a subjoined proposition whose predicate and copula have been omitted. Supplying the ellipsis by way of explanation, they would make the examples read thus: There was no one in the house *but* I (was there). All were made prisoners, *but* the captain (was not made a prisoner), who succeeded in effecting his escape. It surely needs no argument to show which is the more simple and logical of the two constructions. What merit can be claimed for the

one that requires in its elucidation, the supplying of a clumsy ellipsis whose only effect is to make the proposition contradict itself? As, however, both constructions are sanctioned by authorities of note, writers must be left to choose between them in their own practice, while the student of Grammar should construe the word referred to, in accordance with the manner of its employment in given cases.

Exercise 8.

Analyze the examples given in the preceding paragraph, except those contained in the *Remarks*.

10. **Interjections.**—Nearly or quite all of the several parts of speech may be used as interjections. (See *Section 28*).

11. **Letters, Figures, Signs, etc.**—Any letter, syllable, word, phrase, sentence, figure, or sign, considered as such, may be used as a noun, thus: The child is learning his *a*, *b*, *c*'s. You must mind your *p*'s and *q*'s. Dot your *i*'s and cross your *t*'s. *Ness* is a frequent termination of abstract nouns. Some *verbs* denote action. *To be friendless* is a misfortune. *That you are late* is not my fault. Your *6*'s are not plain. = is the sign of equality.

Exercise 9.

Analyze the examples given in the preceding paragraph.

12. **Independent Words.**—Besides interjections, some other words, principally *adverbs*, are used *independently*, that is, without grammatical signification or connection, thus: *No*, I never will dishonor my manhood. Will you go with me? *Yes*, if you will wait until to-morrow. *Well*, what shall we do? *Why*, I do not know. *There* is no peace for the

wicked. *What*, with hunting and fishing, the time flew rapidly by.

Remark 9. It is usual in examples like the last one, to construe *what* as an adverb, signifying *partly*, as, Partly with hunting, etc.; but such a construction seems to be a forced one. It would undoubtedly be better to class as *independent* words, all those which can not be readily construed as performing the office of some part of speech.

Exercise 10.

Analyze the examples given in the preceding paragraph.

13. **Expletives.**—Words that are not necessary to the sense of an expression are called *expletives*, or redundant words: such are *well*, *why*, *there* and *what* in the last examples. Words of this kind are often *properly* used for the sake of ornament or euphony; but when not so used, they are inelegant, and tend to weaken the force of language.

14. **Idioms.**—There are in all languages, but more especially in the English, certain, irregular, but authorized expressions called *idioms*. Of these, it may be well to notice here, the use of *had* in the place of *would*, before such words as *rather*, *lief*, *better*, *best*, *sooner* etc., thus: I *had* rather go. He *had* as *lief* stay. We *had* better remain,=We *would* do *better* to remain. This idiom has probably arisen from a misinterpretation of *I'd*, the *d* being an abbreviation of *would* or *should*.

Remark 9. In these examples, *rather*, as *lief*, and *better* are adverbial elements modifying the copula.

Exercise 11.

Analyze the examples given in the preceding paragraph.

Note 1. It is not claimed, that all of the foregoing examples are elegant in diction, but that they are actual illustrations of the syntactical uses of the parts of speech, as prompted by an intuitive apprehension of the natural and, therefore, logical structure of our language. It is a noteworthy fact, that, although the Grammarians, in their effort to conform our mother tongue to the artificial rules of the dead languages, have overlooked the logical principles of its construction as indicated by the laws of thought, the common mind has not thus erred. And therefore, as a rule, the most effective speakers and writers of the English language, are among those who, ignoring the artificial restraints of Grammar as taught in the text books, express themselves instinctively, as it were, in accordance with its true genius. In a word, they talk and write as they feel and think, and not as instructed by the Grammarians.

15. From the foregoing illustrations, may be deduced as a fundamental principle of Grammar, the following

RULE FOR THE CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS:

All words, whatever may be the parts of speech to which they naturally belong, must be classed and parsed in accordance with their syntactical use in given cases.

Note 2. A rigid application of the above rule may, in some instances, shock the sensibilities of those who are wedded to the prevailing systems of grammar. But it is believed, that, in no other way can instruction in our mother tongue be relieved of the perplexities so universally complained of, and thereby rendered profitable and interesting to learners.

Exercise 12.

Analyze the following expressions in accordance with the foregoing rule :

But. A king is but a man, after all. "Ah! it is but dreaming, it is but seeming." None but the brave deserve the fair. Be not faithless, but believing. He can but refuse me.

Over. He that gathered much, had nothing over. I will make thee ruler over many things. The holidays will soon be over. My cup of sorrow is full and running over. Be not over anxious about the future.

Abroad. The school master is abroad. Our friends have gone abroad. People abroad are sometimes forgetful of home.

Away. "When the cat is away the mice will play." Go not away from me. Away with your nonsense. Drive dull care away.

Above. The balloon is above the lake. "Hananiah feared God above many." "He was seen by above five hundred brethren." "Every good gift is from above." The heavens above and the earth beneath are His handiwork.

About. "There is na luck about the house." Thieves are about. They prowl about at night. There are about a dozen of them. The sailors turned the ship about.

Round. The earth is round. The soldiers had four rounds of cartridges, and as the enemy rounded the corner, they wheeled 'round and fired upon them. Sir Francis Drake sailed 'round the world. Sailors wear roundabouts. We traveled by a round-about way. The spider turned his head round-about. A halo was seen roundabout the moon.

Down. The stone rolled down the hill. The boy had a down look. Down with the traitor.

Below. Louisville is below Cincinnati. The boat came from below. The captain went below.

Under. Cuba is under the dominion of Spain. The ship went under during the storm. An usher is an under teacher.

High. God is enthroned on high. The river is very high. The ship encountered high winds, and the waves rolled mountain high.

Low. The sun was low. Whip-poor-wills fly low. The man was a low bred fellow, and came of low parents.

Deep. The oak struck its roots deep into the ground. The well is deep.

Own. I own a horse. This is my own horse. He came to his own, and his own received him not.

Still. My parents are still living. Though he has all that

he needs, still he is not satisfied. The night was dark and still. With his name, mothers still their babes.

Since. The house was built about ten years since. Ten years have passed since its erection. Since we can not change the course of events, we should be satisfied. Since then he has not been here.

Else. We have nothing else for you. What else do you want? How else can I serve you?

Much, More, and Most. I have as much money as you, and James has more than either of us. Many persons talk too much. They should talk less, and think more. Most persons desire riches. He is a most worthy man. Most of the crew were drowned.

Enough. "Enough is as good as a feast." More than enough is useless. You did not read long enough. Have you enough water?

Both. You must hear both sides of the story. Both of my sons were killed in the battle. She is both beautiful and accomplished.

All. All on earth is shadow. We are all alone. He rode all unarmed. All persons are not trustworthy.

No. I have no money. You shall see my face no more. Have you seen him? No.

First. Adam was the first man. He was created first. Young birds are at first destitute of feathers.

Last. He has spent his last dollar. I saw him last in New York. You are last but not least. He came at last.

Little. A little boy was run over by a carriage. Such a man is little better than nobody. "Man wants but little here below, nor wants that little long."

That. Hand me that book. Men talked of this, and then of that. He that acts wisely, deserves praise. He studies, that he may learn. "He said that that *that*, that that young lady parsed, was not that *that*, that that gentleman had requested her to parse.

Somewhat. I have somewhat against thee. The moon appeared somewhat larger than on the preceding night.

Past. The winter season is past. The patient is sick past recovery. "Time once past never returns." We can not recall the past. I have enjoyed good health during the past year.

Full. He has eaten a full meal. They have eaten to the full. He looked him full in the face.

Like. The son is like the father. That man acts like a fool. Each creature loves its like. We like whatever gives us pleasure.

Even. Six is an even number. Even (adverb) the publicans do the same. This will even all the inequalities.

Such. Such is the society of that blest abode. Of such are the multitude who shall stand before the throne.

Any. Have you any bread? We have not any. Have you any more wine?

Quick. The patient's pulse is too quick. The patient's pulse beats too quick. The surgeon probed the wound to the quick. God will judge the quick and the dead.

Fast. The nail is fast in the wall. The nail sticks fast in the wall. A fast is a period of abstinence from food. Fasting is not feasting. They fasted for three days.

Crooked. The boy crooked his finger. The boy's finger was crooked by himself. The boy had a crooked finger.

Alike. The children look alike. He treats them all alike.

Before. He went before and I went behind. We stopped before the house. Washington died before you were born.

By. He went by stage. He passed by on the other side.

Close. The room is too close. He followed close behind.

Except. We could see nothing except the sky. He did not except either you or me. Except we repent, we shall be punished.

Far. He is far from here. He came from a far country. My home is far distant. Have you come far this morning? We came from afar.

Ill. It is an ill wind, that blows nobody good. The prisoners fared very ill. "The ills that can't be cured, must be endured."

Notwithstanding. He helped the poor, notwithstanding his own poverty. The teacher is kind, notwithstanding he is strict.

Once. Please favor me this once. I visit my friends once in a while.

Only. He was an only son. You are only pretending.

Right. I claim my right. He does not pursue the right course. You did not do the problem right.

So. Why are you so vain? As it is with you, so it is with me. What you told me, is not so. If it were not true, I would not tell you so.

While. It is not worth while to engage in such trifling pursuits. We will while away an hour or two.

Worse. I took him for better or for worse. The patient is worse. You might have done worse than that.

How. How (in what state of health) are you? How did you get here? How can I serve you? I will tell you how you should do it.

"The years have linings, just as goblets do:

The old year is the lining of the new,—

Filled with the wine of precious memories,

The golden *was* doth line the silver *is*."

Note. For many of the foregoing examples, as well as others in this work, the author is indebted to "The Parser's Manual," by John Williams, A. M., a copious and well arranged collection of illustrative examples for analysis and parsing, adapted to any system of Grammar.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR AND COMPOSITION.

PART II.

GRAMMATICAL ELEMENTS.

§ 36. THE ELEMENTS OF LANGUAGE.

GENERAL VIEW.

1. The component elements of language are *letters, syllables, words, phrases, propositions, sentences, and paragraphs.*

2. A **letter** is a simple vocal sound used as a constituent of language, or, more properly, the character representing such sound.

3. A **syllable** is a vocal sound, simple or complex, uttered with a single impulse of the voice, and constituting a word or separable part of a word; or, it is the letter or letters representing such sound.

4. A **word** is a vocal or written sign of a conception or idea, consisting of one or more syllables.

5. A **phrase** is an expression containing two or more words without forming a proposition.

6. A **proposition** is a form of speech in which an attribute is asserted of a subject.

7. A **sentence** is a complete expression containing one or more propositions.

Remark. When a proposition constitutes only a part of a sentence, it is termed a *clause*.

8. A **paragraph** is a distinct portion of a chapter or discourse, consisting of one or more sentences.

9. **Words, phrases, and propositions**, as elements of language, are classified under two general heads, *Grammatical* elements and *Logical* elements.

10. **Grammatical** elements are the several parts of speech, or their equivalents, considered abstractly, or without reference to the manner of their employment in propositions.

11. **Logical** elements are the elements of propositions, principal and subordinate, considered abstractly, or without reference to the parts of speech of which they are constituted: thus, a predicate is a predicate, whether constituted of a noun, a pronoun, an adjective, a verb, a participle, or any equivalent of one of these parts of speech.

§ 37. FORMS OF GRAMMATICAL ELEMENTS.

1. The Grammatical elements are,—

(a) As to their **general** forms, *simple*, *composite*, *complex*, or *compound*.

(b) As to their **Grammatical** forms, *primary* or *inflected*.

(c) As to the manner of their use, *normal* or *abnormal*.

2. A Grammatical element is **simple**, when it consists of a single word that can not be separated into two or more words: as, *father, her, good, walk, walking, frequently, from, and, alas*.

3. A Grammatical element is **composite**, when it consists of a single word that is composed of two or more words, or one that performs the office of two or more words: as, *steamboat, bare-footed, himself whoever, mine* (my property etc.), *what* (that which), *none* (no one or not any), *writes* (does write), *wrote* (did write).

Remark 1. The compound personal pronouns, so called, as, *myself, himself*, etc., are, properly, composite in construction; but the customary name for them has been retained in this work, in order to distinguish them from the composite possessive pronouns, *mine, thine, hers* etc. (§ 17).

Remark 2. Adjective pronouns are not composite, because the nouns for which they stand are not combined with them, but may be separately expressed without changing the form of the representative word. (§ 30).

4. A Grammatical element is **complex**, when it consists of a phrase or a proposition that performs the office of a simple element: as, *John Smith* is a very common name. *Doctor Jones* is a skillful physician. His home is in *New York City*. We sailed across *Lake Erie*. *John Bunyan's* famous work is "*Pilgrims Progress*." The old folks are *at home*. We love the old folks *at home*. Intemperance will *break down* (ruin) the health of any one. All men *fall short* (fail) in their duty. The merchant is *closing out* (selling) his stock at east. The children

were *brought up* (reared) in idleness. The man ran *across the street*. My brother wears a *dark blue* coat. John *as well as* James will be there. My house is *over against* the church. The dog ran *out of* the house. *Whoever lies*, will steal. He *that sins*, will be punished. My fear is, *that we shall be late*.

Exercise 1. Point out the complex elements in the foregoing examples, and name the part of speech to which each one is equivalent.

5. A Grammatical element is **compound** when it consists of two or more simple, composite or complex elements of equal rank, joined by a co-ordinate conjunction, expressed or understood, and so united in sense as to be inseparable: as, *Mush and milk* is a favorite diet with many persons. The relation of *husband and wife* is a very responsible one. A *red, white, and blue* flag was displayed at the mast head. The passengers were walking *to and fro* upon the deck. We traveled *back and forth* between the two cities for a year or more. *To work hard and accomplish nothing*, is discouraging. *That you should be here so long and no one discover your presence*, is indeed strange.

Exercise 2. Point out the compound elements in the foregoing examples, and name the part of speech to which each one is equivalent.

6. A Grammatical element is **primary**, when it retains its original form as a part of speech: as, *man, woman, child, house, lion, he, do, am, play write*.

7. A Grammatical element is **inflected**, when its

form is changed to indicate some Grammatical property or relation: as, *men, man's, men's, women, children, houses, lioness, his, him, does, did, are, played, writes, wrote.*

Exercise 3. Compare the inflected words in the last paragraph, with their primary forms in the preceding one, and explain, as far as possible, the additional ideas conveyed by the inflections, or changes of form.

8. A Grammatical element is **normal**, when it is used in accordance with its ordinary signification.

9. A Grammatical element is **abnormal**, when it is used irregularly, as explained in *Section 35*, or when it is constituted of a phrase or a clause, as explained in paragraph 4, of the present Section.

§ 38. GENERAL DIVISIONS OF GRAMMAR.

1. English Grammar is usually treated under four heads, *Orthography, Etymology, Syntax, and Prosody.*

2. **Orthography** treats of the elementary sounds of language, the letters representing them, and the rules for spelling.

3. **Etymology** treats of the different parts of speech and their Grammatical modifications.

4. **Syntax** treats of the proper arrangement of the Grammatical elements in propositions, sentences, and paragraphs, together with the rules for Capitalization and Punctuation.

5. **Prosody** treats of the laws of versification.

General Remarks. The foregoing statement of the time-honored divisions of Grammar, has been given as a matter of general information, merely, and not because of its possessing

any practical value to the student. Such a classification is not only arbitrary, but it comprehends more than strictly belongs to the subject of Grammar as taught in these modern days. Orthography is necessarily pursued as a distinct branch of instruction, and Prosody belongs to the general subject of Composition. Therefore neither of these topics will be formally treated in the present work. And, as to Etymology, there is in English Grammar so little that comes properly under this head, and that little is so intimately related to what is usually called Syntax, that no effort will be made to treat it in these lessons as a distinct subject. For, the main design of the work being to inculcate practical instruction, it is thought inadvisable to trammel the pupil's progress with mere technicalities of any sort.

§ 39. INFLECTION.

GENERAL VIEW.

1. **Inflection**, in Grammar, is a variation in the forms of some of the parts of speech, to indicate certain grammatical properties, and relations to other words: as, child, *children*; poet, *poetess*; I, *my, me*; wise, *wiser, wisest*; do, *dost, does, did, didst*; write, *writes, wrote*.

Remark 1. The modifications that change words from one part of speech to another, as, wise, *wisdom*; designate, *designation*, are not called inflections. Such changes come under the head of derivation, and belong to the general study of language.

Oral Exercise.

1. Name the several parts of speech.
2. What are nouns?
3. Name and define the different classes of nouns, as explained in *Section 16*.
4. How do you distinguish *abstract*, from *concrete* nouns? By a difference in forms, or by their signification?

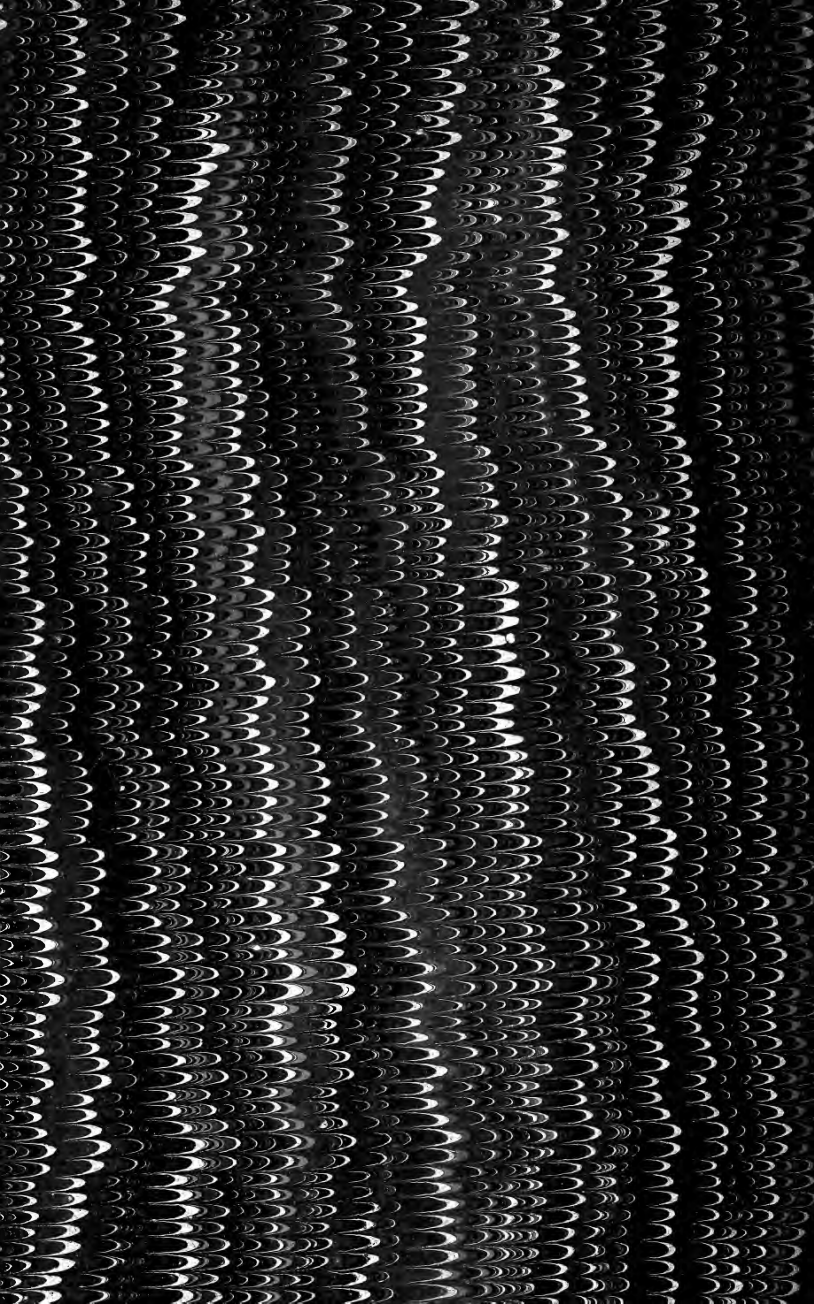


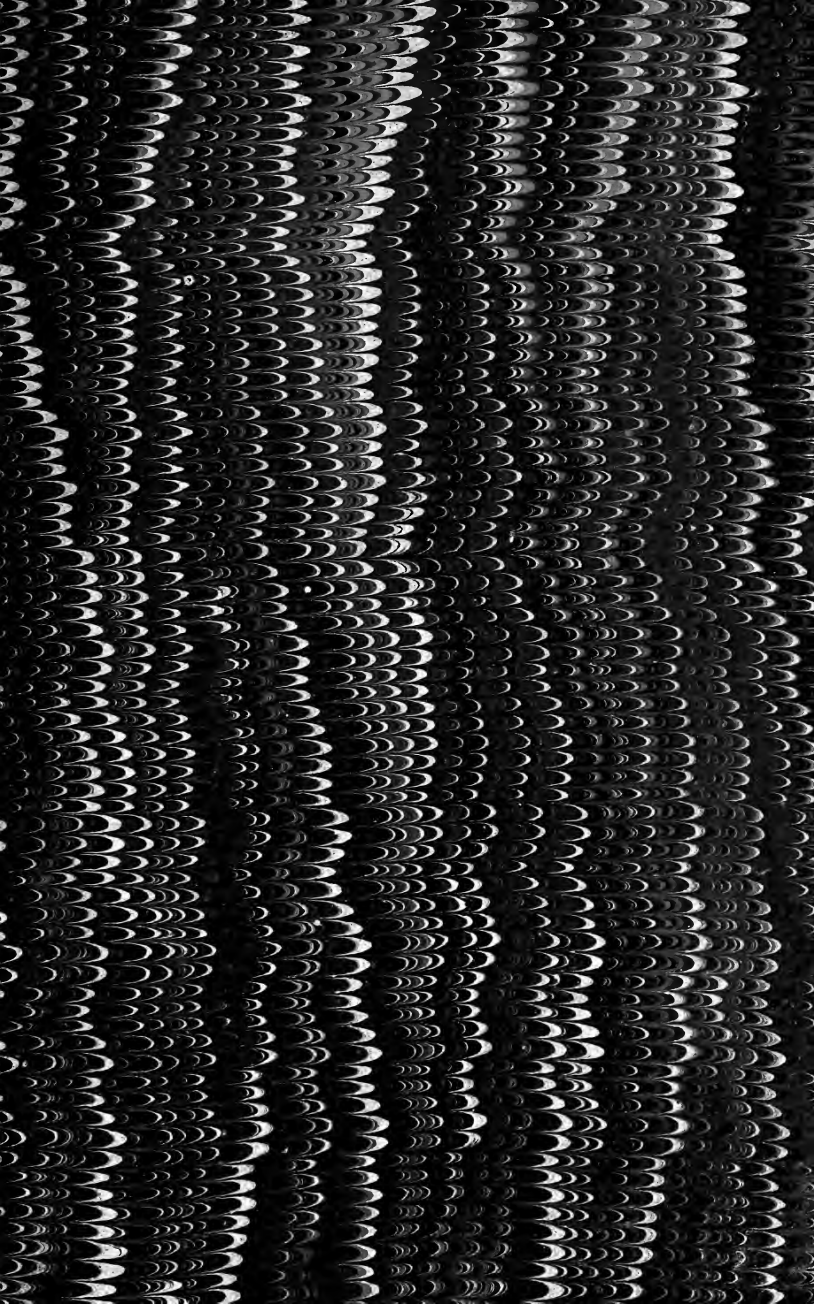












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